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RUDIMENTARY TREATISE
ON
LIMES, CEMENTS, MORTARS,
ETC.

BY GEORGE R. BURNELL, C.E.

Price 1s.

JOHN WEALE.

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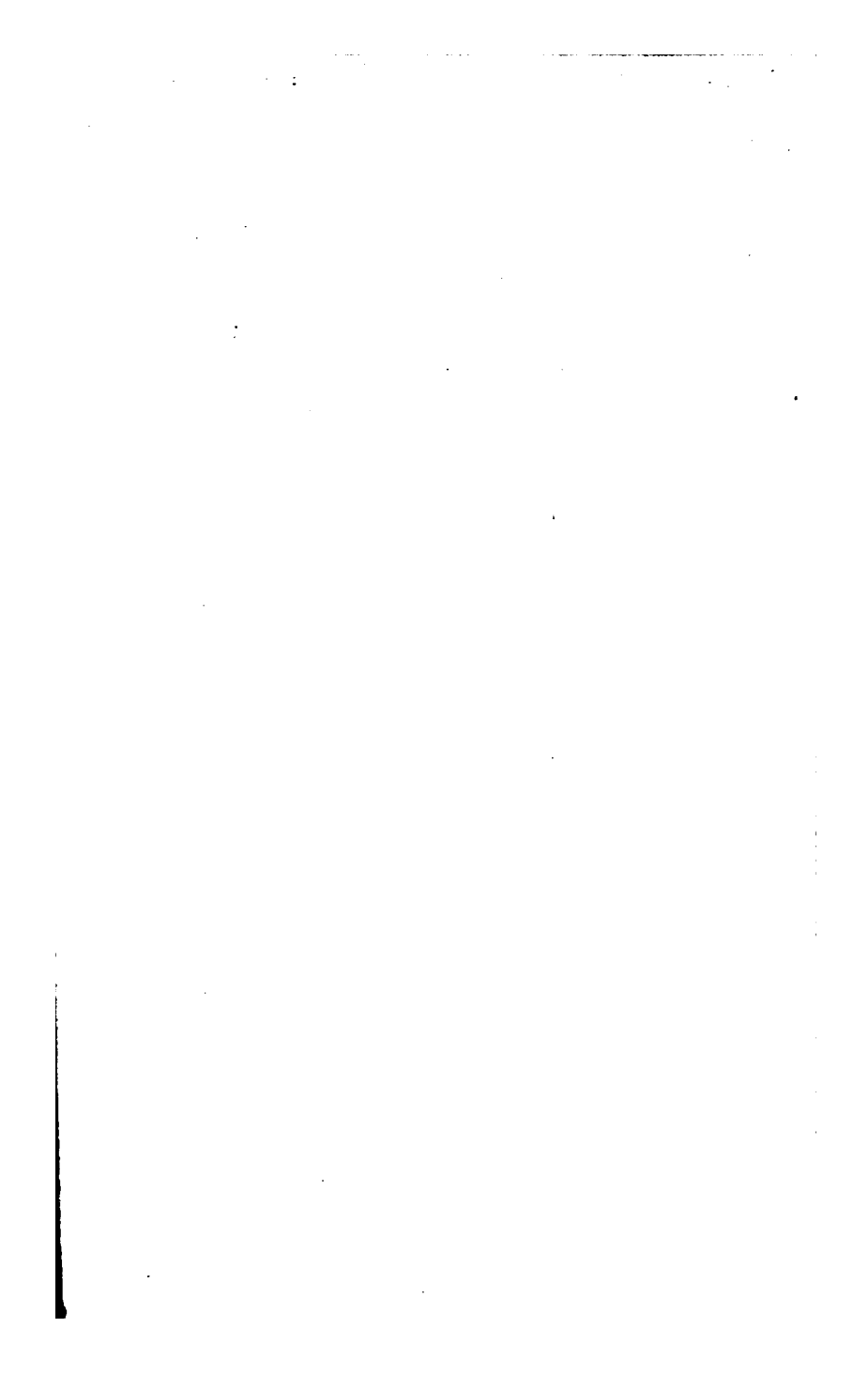


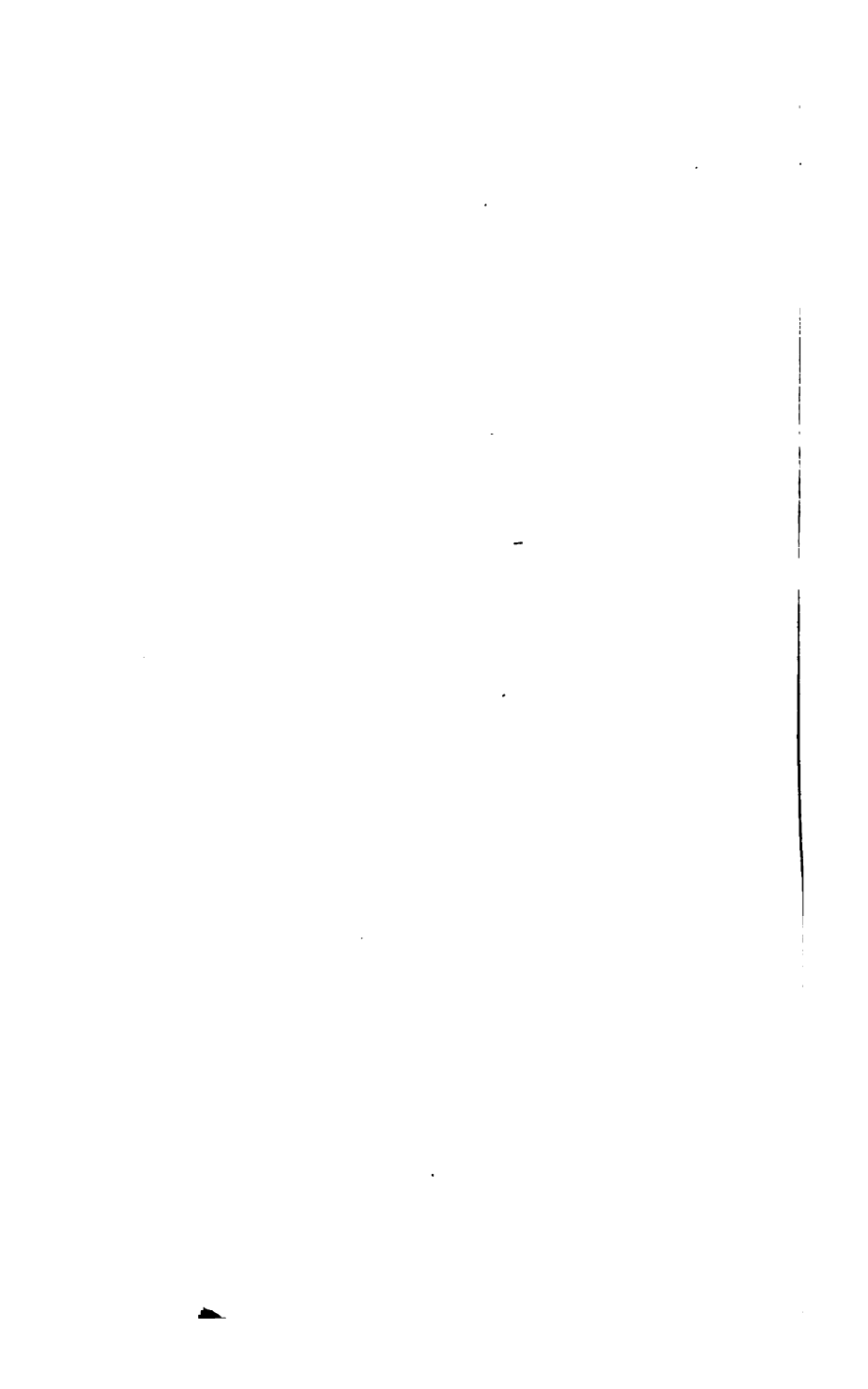
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RUDIMENTARY TREATISE
ON
LIMES,
CEMENTS, MORTARS, CONCRETES,
MASTICS, PLASTERING,
ETC.

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"Legitimæ inquisitionis vera norma est, ut nihil veniat in practicam, cujus non fit etiam doctrina aliqua et theoria."—BACON.

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P R E F A C E.

THE following treatise contains nothing that is new, nothing that is original, nothing that the author claims as his own. The object he has proposed to himself has been to put into as condensed a form as was consistent with the nature of the subject, the knowledge and information dispersed through a numerous collection of authors, who have treated thereupon. They are mostly in foreign languages; for it is much to be regretted that our own scientific authorities have not thought it worth their while to occupy themselves with this highly important branch of practical chemistry.

The author has endeavoured, as conscientiously as possible, to avoid any questionable theory, or to quote as practical results any cases of whose correctness reasonable doubts might be entertained. There are, it is true, some theories propounded, some practices recommended, which are in direct contradiction to those usually received in England. They have not, however, been so advanced, unless the long experience of the most distinguished foreign engineers has warranted him in believing that our own practice is based entirely upon prejudice. We are, whether for good or for evil, essentially a practical nation—we have a dislike to theory, almost to analysis—we examine reluctantly any habit we have long followed. As in politics, so we are even in building. Our forefathers made mortar in one way, as perfect as their knowledge admitted, and doubtlessly that way was all that

was practically necessary to secure the results then sought for—so we continue without examination in the track they beat for us. Our requirements are, however, very different. Railroads, and the constructions they necessitate, have modified very materially the science of construction. In England, especially of late years, works have been executed which so immeasurably surpass in boldness anything which had been previously attempted, that we may be justified in expressing our surprise that so few attempts have been made to ascertain the real nature of the materials dealt with. Is it not to this neglect that we may attribute the numerous failures we read of?

Some of these failures have been so remarkable, and some recent business transactions have displayed so singular an inattention to the nature and properties of lime, that the author deems it his right to provoke a discussion upon the subject, trusting that abler heads and hands will complete what he has so imperfectly begun. This branch of chemical knowledge has been so entirely “revolutionized” of late, so much uncertainty still remains to overshadow it, that it would be worse than folly to make any assertion which would lead to a belief that even the very fundamental principles were not, even now, susceptible of modification. That which is to be desired above all things is to rouse the professions of engineers and architects from the apathy with which they treat such subjects as the one before us—the very alpha and omega of their business. There is, however, something so invidious in attacking openly a generally-received opinion (as he has done in the case of the mode of making mortar practised in this country, page 65 and subsequently), that he throws himself upon the consideration of his professional brethren, in the hope that they will excuse his boldness on the score of his sincere desire to advance the true interests of science.

At the same time he would beg to protest very energetically against the "rule-of-thumb" methods which prevail, in England, in the manipulation of mortars. Architects and engineers, it is true, prescribe certain proportions of lime and sand to be employed; but in reality "the foreman of the pug-mill," as the labourers call the person entrusted with this work, is the only authority, and he mixes the ingredients precisely as it suits his fancy. In reality, mortar-making is a branch of practical chemistry—on a large scale, it is true—one which does not admit of the care and exactness of the laboratory. But the safety of a building often depends upon the perfection with which it is executed, and a great amount of scientific acquirements is necessary to insure that perfection. Yet architects and engineers almost invariably leave every operation connected with it to the most ignorant class of workmen—to a man receiving 3s. per day, often unable to read; always of necessity ignorant of the principles which regulate the action of the materials he has to deal with. For more than twenty-one years the author has been employed in building operations; but in the whole course of his experience he never saw in any construction, in England, a measure to verify the proportions of the ingredients used in the mortars. They do manage these things better in France; unfortunately they waste much time and money in endeavouring to attain a chemical exactness of operation. Of the two errors, however, it is certainly preferable to fall into that of being careful overmuch, than of neglecting the proper precautions.

We have seen of late years far too many accidents happen, too many absurdities committed, not to render it necessary to protest loudly against the carelessness with which the use of limes is regarded. One of the most important works executed of late years in London was built upon concrete made of

stone lime, to which iron filings were added at a most tremendous and useless expense. Another large work was described in the specification as to be executed with hydraulic lime; and the engineer allowed the common stone lime to be used, although it is very far from being what is properly called an hydraulic lime. We have known viaducts with piers 100 ft. high executed with chalk lime; they have fallen, and been rebuilt with the hydraulic lime, which only ought to have been employed; and we hear of puozzolano being used still in sea works. Surely, therefore, any examination of the nature of the materials to be used, which will hereafter prevent a repetition of such mishaps, must be of service.

The different scientific associations connected with building would confer a great boon if they would undertake a series of investigations upon the still undecided questions connected with the chemistry of the professions, and also if they would make a statistical statement of our mineral wealth, as far at least as our building materials are concerned. We require a series of observations upon the geological and geographical distribution of the rocks able to furnish hydraulic limes. A synopsis of the building stones is also a desideratum; for the Parliamentary Report upon the subject was very far indeed from being a satisfactory solution of its difficulties. Such an inquiry should be undertaken under the auspices of the united bodies of the engineers and architects.

There is still much to be added to this short treatise to render it perfect; perhaps there are many things to change. The author will be satisfied if he should have succeeded in calling the attention of more competent people to a subject which has long interested him, and which is still involved in great obscurity.

LIST OF AUTHORS CONSULTED, AND OFTEN COPIED
LITERALLY.

Vitruvius—De Architectura.	Treussart—Mémoires sur les Chaux et Ciments.
Plinius—Historia Naturalis.	Claudel—Formules et Tables à l'Usage de l'Ingénieur.
St. Augustinus—Civitas Dei.	Petot—Recherches sur la Chau- fournerie.
Brande's Manual of Chemistry.	Pelouze et Fremy—Abregé de Chimie.
Ure's Dictionary of Arts, &c.	Dumas—La Chimie appliquée aux Arts.
Parnell's Applied Chemistry.	Berthier—Traité des Essais par la Voie Sèche.
Pasely on Limes and Cements.	Encyclopédie Roret—L'Art du Chaufournier.
Smeaton's Account of building Eddystone Lighthouse.	Les Annales des Mines.
Godwin's Paper on Concretes, Trans. Brit. Arch.	Les Annales des Ponts et Chaussées.
Blondel—Cours d'Architecture.	Les Annales du Génie Militaire.
Rondelet—L'Art de Bâtir.	
Sganzin—Cours de Construction.	
Vicat—Recherches sur la Chaux.	
Hassenfratz—L'Art de Calciner la Pierre Calcaire.	

Besides a number of works treating incidentally upon
the subject.

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ON
LIMES, CALCAREOUS CEMENTS,
MORTARS, STUCCOS, AND CONCRETES.

CHAPTER I.

CURSORY VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF DISCOVERY IN
THE SCIENCE CONNECTED WITH LIMES, ETC.

THE use of some cementing material to bind together the small stones or bricks employed in the construction of walls, and also for the purpose of giving them a smooth surface adapted to receive polychromic or other decoration, dates from a very high antiquity. It is, however, probable that it was subsequently to the discovery of the art of brickmaking, that the ancients arrived at that of burning lime. Indeed, the use of moistened clay, which was found to have a certain ductility, and to harden also in drying, was likely to have preceded that of lime, as a cement; for the qualities, and the mode of obtaining the latter, were of a nature to require long study and great experience.

The Assyrians and Babylonians appear to have employed either moistened clay or the bitumen so plentifully supplied by the springs in their country. Some doubt appears to exist as to whether these people did really use mortar. Captain Mignan

sometimes talks of bricks which were cemented together with a coarse layer of lime. "At others," he says that, "between the brickwork at irregular distances a layer of white substance is perceptible, varying from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to 1 in. in thickness, not unlike burnt gypsum or the sulphate of lime. From the peculiarly mollified state of the bricks I apprehend this white powder is nothing more than common earth, which has undergone this change by the influence of the air on the clay composing the bricks."

The Egyptians, however, used mortar in the construction of their pyramids. Mr. Cressy has, indeed, given an analysis of that of the pyramid of Cheops, which shows that they possessed nearly as much practical knowledge of the subject as we do at the present day. (*Theory and Practice of Engineering*, pages 717 and 718.)

Sir Gardner Wilkinson also mentions that the interior of some of the pyramids were stuccoed, but he does not give any description by which we might even guess at the nature of the materials employed.

The Greeks, at a very early period of their civilization, used compositions, of which lime was the base, to render the walls constructed in unburnt bricks. According to Plinius and Vitruvius the palace of Cræsus, the Mausoleum, and the palace of Attalus were protected, or ornamented, in this manner. According to Strabo the walls of Tyre were built of stone set with gypsum, a very common material apparently in Asia Minor, and the centre of the old Assyrian civilization.

In Italy the first people who employed mortar in

their buildings were the Etruscans. Gori, in his *Museum Etruscum*, mentions that in the tombs found near their ancient cities, such as Iguvium, Clusium, Volterra, the constructions were made with mortar. Near Volterra also, in 1739, a cistern, entirely built and lined with that material, was discovered. A branch of this nation, known under the name of Tyrhenians, were considered by the Greeks to have invented, or at least considerably improved, the art of masonry. The most ancient authors, such as Homer, Hesiod, Herodotus, and Thucydides, speak of them under that name, and call their walls by the word "tyrsis," instead of "teichos," the one used by the more modern authors. The word "tyrsis" is supposed to have had the same signification in the Etruscan language; and the towers erected for the purpose of fortification were also called "tyrseis" by the Greeks.

The Romans, as is well known, derived all their knowledge of the arts either from the Etruscans or the Greeks. They added little to the general stock of knowledge as to the use of limes, but Vitruvius is the first author upon the subject whose works have descended to us. The text of this remarkable man's work shows that the ancients, although they adopted a different scientific phraseology from that in fashion in the 18th century, knew as much of the laws regulating this branch of chemistry as the moderns of that time. For all practical purposes Vitruvius is even now as safe a guide as the authors who treated the subject subsequently; at least until we arrive at the researches of M. Vicat.

Plinius and St. Augustin treat occasionally about limes and cements; the former, principally to complain of the malpractices of the builders; the latter, to seek metaphysical comparisons. On the revival of literature, after the Cimmerian darkness of the middle ages, which it is now so much the fashion to admire, the authors who treated upon the art of building, such as Alberti, Palladio, Barbaro, Philibert de l'Orme, Scamozzi, Savot, Bullet and Blondel, did but follow in the traces of Vitruvius. There was a little difference of opinion, it is true, as to the quality of sand which it was most advisable to use: some new limes, some puozzolanos, terrass, and ashes, were employed to give to certain other limes the faculty of setting under water: but no advance seems to have been made towards ascertaining the principles which regulate this branch of chemistry.

It is, indeed, worthy of remark, that the more useful arts appear to be carefully studied until the practical results they are capable of producing are ascertained; then the rules drawn from such results are received implicitly for a long period, and any attempt to ascertain the laws which regulate them is regarded as useless. We, the human race, appear to attain empirical knowledge quickly; scientific knowledge arrives at a much later period. So it was with limes: so it is with the casting and puddling of iron—a subject equally, if not more, interesting.

The first serious attempt made to ascertain the causes which gave some limes the power of setting under water, and which modified their rates of hardening, was made by the father of civil engineer-

ing in England, John Smeaton, in 1756. Being at that time engaged in the construction of the Eddystone Lighthouse, he found it necessary to have a cement capable of hardening at once in the water; he therefore began a series of experiments, which are detailed in his account of the building of that work; book iii., chap. 3. The results he arrived at were very remarkable, not only for their practical utility, but also as an illustration of the ease with which a very acute observer may stop short on this side of the attainment of a great truth. Smeaton found that the commonly received opinion that the harder stones gave the best limes, was only true as far as regarded each quality considered by itself. That is to say, that of limes not fit to be used as "water cements," those made of the hardest stones were the best for certain uses in the air; but that whether obtained from the hardest marble, or the softest chalk, such limes were equally useless when employed under water. He found that all the limes which could set under water were obtained from the calcination of such limestones as contained a large portion of clay in their composition. His experiments led him to use, for the important work of the lighthouse, a cement compounded of blue lias lime from Aberthaw, and of puozzolano brought from Civita Vecchia, near Rome. Even at the present day it would be difficult to employ a better material than this, excepting that the price would ensure a preference to the Roman cement, then unknown. But Smeaton, after giving a table showing that all the water limes contained clay in the limestones

from whence they were extracted, in proportions varying from $\frac{1}{14}$ to $\frac{1}{17}$, goes on to say, "that it remains a curious question, which I must leave to the learned naturalist and chemist, why an intermediate mixture of clay in the composition of limestone of any kind, either hard or soft, should render it capable of setting in water in a manner no pure lime, I have yet seen, from any kind of stone whatsoever, has been capable of doing. It is easy to add clay in any proportion to a pure lime, but it produces no such effect; it is easy to add brick dust, either finely or coarsely powdered, to such lime in any proportion also; but this seems unattended with any other effect than what arises from other bodies become porous and spongy, and therefore absorbent of water as already hinted, and excepting what may reasonably be attributed to the iron particles that red brick-dust may contain. In short, I have as yet found no treatment of pure calcareous lime that rendered it more fit to set in water than it is by nature, except what is to be derived from the admixture of trass, puozzolano, and some ferruginous substance of a similar nature."

The stress Smeaton laid upon the presence of the ferruginous substance, led many chemists to attribute the hydraulicity of limes to the presence of the oxide of iron. Guyton de Morveau and Bergmann, finding the oxide of manganese in the hydraulic limes they analyzed, regarded it as producing the effect in question. Their researches were nearly contemporaneous with those of Smeaton. Thirty years afterwards, Saussure observed that the lime of the Cha-

mouni set under water, though entirely without manganese; and he, therefore, like Smeaton, attributed this faculty to the presence of the clay. In 1813, Colets Descotils, on analyzing the compact marl of Senonches, found in it nearly one quarter of silex, which led him to the conclusion that the cause of the phenomenon consisted in the presence of a large quantity of siliceous matter, disseminated in very fine particles in the tissue of the stone itself.

To continue the quotation from Vicat—"The opinion of Descotils did not weaken or invalidate that of Saussure, since clay contains generally more silex than alumina; and the two chemists agreed, moreover, in considering the oxide of manganese, if not as a useless element, at least as one which was not essential. This was the state of the question in 1813; and it was with the intention of putting an end to all doubts upon the subject that I decided at that epoch to proceed synthetically, and to compose hydraulic limes entirely, by burning different mixtures of common lime, slacked spontaneously, with clay: the success surpassed my hopes. All the clays, rich and soft to the touch, gave the same results; my experiments were repeated in Paris, in 1817, with the limes of Cleyes and of Champigny, and the clay from Vauvres; subsequent experiments, by Mr. St. Leger, in England, and by M. Raucourt de Charleville, in Russia, confirmed the results previously obtained."

The subsequent researches of the most eminent chemists and engineers have but confirmed the theory to which Vicat was led by his experiments,

with a few unimportant rectifications of detail. Berthier, Dumas, Hassenfraz, Treussart, Thénard, Gay Lussac, Petôt, Sgauzin, Girard, in France, John of Berlin, and Pasely, in our own country, as well as all the scientific authors who have treated upon the subject throughout the globe, have arrived at the same conclusions as Vicat with respect to the causes which influence the different actions of lime. The following condensed statement of the usually received theory may, therefore, be taken as representing the actual state of this branch of chemical and engineering science.

CHAPTER II.

CHEMICAL THEORY OF THE ACTION OF LIMES, AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION.

PURE lime, as regarded in chemistry, is a metallic oxide, having strong alkaline properties. It is caustic, and turns green the vegetable blues. Its specific gravity, according to Kirwan, is 2.3. It is very difficult of fusion, but greatly assists the fusion of other earthy bodies. At an ordinary temperature pure water can dissolve $\frac{1}{772}$ of its own weight of lime; but, when boiling, it dissolves less. Dr. Dalton states that water at the following degrees of the centigrade scale will dissolve the following proportions of lime, and of its hydrate, viz. :—

At 15° 5 centigrade it dissolves $\frac{1}{772}$ of lime, and $\frac{1}{384}$ of the hydrate.

„ 50° 0	„	„	$\frac{1}{573}$	„	$\frac{1}{739}$	„
„ 100° 0	„	„	$\frac{1}{1370}$	„	$\frac{1}{532}$	„

The pure metallic base never occurs in nature, nor does pure lime, its protoxide. If the pure lime were exposed for a period however short, it would absorb the water and carbonic acid gas of the atmosphere. We therefore find it in the state of carbonate and subcarbonate of lime, in which it is very extensively diffused. The lime of commerce is obtained by the calcination of these carbonates, and the process consists in driving off by heat the carbonic acid gas which is in combination.

The minerals which contain the carbonate of lime, and which are designated under the generic name of "limestones," or "calcareous stones," are of very various natures. They are mostly composed of carbonate of lime, of magnesia, of oxide of iron, and of manganese combined in variable proportions; and at others they admit in a state of mechanical admixture of clay (either bituminous, or not) of quartzose sand, and of numerous other substances. The name of limestone is more especially applied to such of the above mixtures as contain at least one half of their weight of carbonate of lime. Mineralogists distinguish the subdivisions by the names of the "argillaceous, magnesian, sandy, ferruginous, bituminous, fetid," &c. These subdivisions, again, are often characterized by varieties of form and contexture, which they specify under the names of the lamellar, saccharoid, granular, compact, oolitic, chalky, pulverulent, pseudomorphic, concreted, &c. &c.

This nomenclature is important; for every description of limestone yields a lime of different quality, distinct in colour and weight, its avidity for water,

and especially in the degree of hardness it is capable of assuming when made into mortar. But the physical and mechanical nature of a stone are far from being certain guides as to the quality of the lime it can yield. A chemical analysis also frequently gives different results from those obtained in practice. Experience alone should be the guide of the engineer, or of the builder.

The carbonate of lime occurs in nearly all the geological formations, but it is scarce in the primary ones. In the transition rocks it is more abundant; and it constitutes the great mass of the secondary and tertiary formations. It is worked largely, either for the purpose of obtaining building stones, or for the burning for lime. The calcareous rocks of the primary formations, and of the early transition series, furnish stones which are worked under the name of marbles. The secondary and tertiary calcareous rocks contain the mixtures of clay and other ingredients which render them the most adapted to furnish limes.

After a calcination sufficient to disengage the carbonic acid gas, the stone will be found to have diminished considerably in weight, and it then possesses the property of absorbing water, either with or without a disengagement of heat. It cracks and falls to pieces whilst thus combining with the water, or slacking, as the workmen call the process of passing into the state of a hydrate.

The principal characteristics of the hydrate of lime are that it is white and pulverulent; much less caustic than quick lime. It parts easily with the

first portions of its water of combination if exposed to fire, or even to mere friction; but it requires a very high degree of heat to cause it to part with the whole of the water. There is still a great degree of uncertainty as to the chemical action of the hydrates. Generally speaking, they are considered not to absorb oxygen; but Treussart supposes that they do so, and that they undergo important modifications in consequence. The quantity of water that limes solidify in passing to the state of hydrates is also a question upon which much doubt exists amongst chemists. Berzelius supposed that the hydrates were formed of water and the metallic oxides, in such proportions as that the quantity of oxygen contained in the water be equal to the oxygen contained in the oxide. Thus, the hydrate of lime absorbs the carbonic acid gas from the air, or even (with the best limes) from the water if immersed therein; and after a period varying with the nature of the limestones from which it was prepared, it solidifies with an imperfect crystallization. 100 parts of pure lime, which contain 28·16 parts of oxygen, Berzelius supposes to combine with 32·1 parts of water, which contain also 28·3 of oxygen. Thénard, however, does not admit this to be the law in all cases; and certainly some of Treussart's experiments would induce us to hesitate before we admit it. The hydrates, under the action of the voltaic pile, assume the same action as the oxides. Bodies capable of decomposing water, always act upon them, even upon such as heat does not affect; acids also decompose the hydrates when these are produced from the oxides of mineral bases

If we observe the phenomena which attend the slacking and hardening, or, to use the workman's phrase, the setting of lime, we find that they may be ranged in the following order. The lime in these experiments is supposed to be perfectly fresh, and is immersed in a small basket, in perfectly pure water, for the space of five or six seconds only. It is then allowed to dry, or at least the loose uncombined water is allowed to run off, and the contents of the basket are then emptied into a stone or iron mortar.

1. The lime hisses, crackles, swells, gives off a large quantity of very hot vapour, and falls into powder instantly : or,

2. The lime remains inert for a period of variable duration, but which does not exceed five or six minutes; after which the phenomena above described declare themselves energetically: or,

3. The lime, again, remains inert for five or six minutes, or the period of its inactivity may extend to a quarter of an hour. It then begins to give off vapour and to crack, without decrepitating to any great extent. The steam formed is less abundant, and the evolution of heat is less than in the two former cases : or,

4. The phenomena only commence an hour after the immersion of the lime, and sometimes even after a lapse of time still more considerable. The lime cracks, without decrepitation, it gives off little steam or heat : or,

5. The phenomena commence at epochs which are very variable, but they are hardly perceptible; the heat given off is only distinguishable by the

touch; the lime does not fall easily into powder, and at times it does not do so at all.

Before the effervescence has entirely disappeared, the slacking of the lime should be completed. As soon as the cracking and falling to pieces begins, water should be poured into the vase, not upon the lime, but by the side, so that it may flow freely to the bottom, from whence it would be absorbed by the portions of the lime in a sufficiently advanced state of chemical action to require it. The compost should be frequently stirred, and sufficient water should be added, taking care not to flood the lime, but merely to bring it to the consistence of a thick paste.

Thus prepared, the lime should be left to itself until all the inert particles have had time to complete their action. The end of this is announced by the cooling of the mass, and it may last from two to three hours, or sometimes even more.

The limes should then be beaten up again, and water added, if necessary, until a paste be obtained as firm as possible; but at the same time preserving a certain degree of ductility. Its consistence should be equal to that of clay ready to be worked into pottery. A vase should then be taken and well filled with this paste; it should be marked and immersed in water, taking note of the day and hour of the immersion.

Careful observations made upon the limes thus treated show that they may be divided into the five following classes: namely, 1, the rich limes; 2, the poor limes; 3, the limes middlingly hydraulic:

4, the hydraulic limes; and, 5, the eminently hydraulic limes. Smeaton and the bulk of the English engineers use the term *water* lime instead of *hydraulic*; but it appeared to me advisable, for the sake of uniformity of nomenclature, to preserve the one adopted throughout the Continent. It is, then, to be understood that wherever the term hydraulic lime occurs, it signifies the same as that of *water* lime, and means one which possesses the property of setting under water.

1. The *rich* limes are the purest metallic oxides of calcium we possess, and the purer the carbonate of lime from which they are obtained, the more distinctly marked are the appearances from which they derive their name. These are, that they augment in volume to twice their original bulk, or even more than that when slacked in the usual manner. If employed by themselves without any admixture of foreign substances, their consistency, even after many years of immersion, is the same as on the first day. If exposed to pure water frequently renewed, the very last particle would be taken up in solution by the water.

2. The *poor* limes are those which either do not augment in bulk at all, or only do so to a very trifling extent, when slacked. They set under water as little as the rich limes, and are acted upon by that agent in the same manner, excepting that they leave a small residuum without consistence.

3. The middlingly hydraulic limes set after from fifteen to twenty days' immersion, and continue to harden for some time afterwards; but the progress

of their hardening diminishes after the sixth or eighth month; after a year their consistence is equal to that of dry soap. They dissolve, but with difficulty, in frequently renewed pure water. The change of bulk they undergo in slacking is the same as that of the poor limes, but never equal to that of the richer varieties.

4. The hydraulic limes set after from six to eight days' immersion, and continue to harden; the progress of this solidification may extend to twelve months, although the greater part of it is completed by the end of the first six. At this last epoch the lime is already of the consistence of the softer building stones, and the water in which it is immersed is no longer able to dissolve it. Its change in bulk in slacking is about the same as that of the poor limes.

5. The eminently hydraulic limes set within the third or fourth day of their immersion. After a month they are already quite hard, and capable of resisting the dissolvent action of running water. At the end of six months they are capable of being worked like the harder natural limestones, and present a fracture closely resembling that of the latter. Their change in bulk is invariably as small as that of the poor limes.

It is to be observed that all the qualities of lime, whether rich, poor, or hydraulic in any degree, assume indifferently any colour. They may be either white, gray, yellow, buff, or red, without any corresponding change in their quality, as far at least as our present knowledge of the art of lime-burning will allow us to assert with any degree of certainty.

We shall have occasion to revert to this question of the colour of limes when we treat of their calcination in a subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE CHEMICAL NATURE AND GEOLOGICAL POSITION OF THE STONES WHICH FURNISH THE DIFFERENT SORTS OF LIME.

A CHEMICAL examination of the stones which furnish the different limes of the preceding classification, shows that the pure calcareous rocks, or such as contain only from 1 to 6 per cent. of silex, alumina, magnesia, iron, &c., either separately or in combination, give rich limes upon being burnt.

2. The limestones containing silica in the state of sand, magnesia, the oxides of iron and of manganese, in various respective proportions, but limited to between 15 to 30 per cent. of the whole mass, yield poor limes.

3. The limestones containing silex in combination with alumina (common clay), magnesia, the oxides of iron and of manganese, in various respective proportions, but limited to 8 or 12 per cent. of the whole mass, yield moderately hydraulic limes.

4. When the above ingredients are present in the proportion of from 15 to 18 per cent., but the silex always predominating, the limestones yield an hydraulic lime.

5. When the limestones contain more than 20

and up to 30 per cent. of the above ingredients, but with the silex in the proportion of at least one-half of them, the limestones yield eminently hydraulic limes.

The experiments upon which the above conclusions are based show that limes owe their hydraulicity, or power of setting under water, to the presence of a certain quantity of clay, and sometimes, but rarely, to that of a certain quantity of pure silex. It is supposed that during the calcination silicates of lime and alumina are formed, with an excess of lime; these in slacking absorb a quantity of water, and solidify in combining therewith; being insoluble in water they remain therein without decomposing, or at least they only yield the small proportion of lime which might have existed in excess in their combination.

In the actual state of our chemical knowledge it is impossible to say whether there exist any definite proportions either of silex alone, of silex and alumina, of silex or magnesia, &c., which are capable, when mixed with the same quantity of pure lime, of producing hydraulic limes of similar qualities. Indeed the whole of this branch of chemistry, notwithstanding the important discoveries made in it of late years, is still very little understood. The action of the oxide of iron, for instance, quite escapes the attempts made to include it within any law. Berthier found that a mixture of 4 parts of chalk with 1 of ochre, containing 0·07 parts of oxide of iron, gave a very bad lime, one incapable of hardening

under water. Yet we know that the Sheppy stone contains 0·086 of the same oxide, and the Boulogne cement stone contains as much as 0·15; both of these, as we all know, do set under water, not only with rapidity, but with a great degree of hardness. Treussart burnt a mixture of chalk and iron filings from a blacksmith's shop, of chalk with the black and the brown oxides of iron, at different degrees of calcination, of chalk and steel filings, but he only obtained rich limes without any degree of hydraulicity. Smeaton, however, had previously obtained different results, for he states that minion, a calcined iron ore, obtained from the outside of the nodules of the stone after the first roasting, communicated in a very great degree the power of setting under water to rich limes. He adds, in a note worthy of particular attention, that the "minion is supposed by Mr. Mitchell to be what falls from the outside of the iron stone, and therefore containing more clay."

The action of the magnesia seems also involved in the same obscurity. M. Parandier tried some experiments by mixing the chalk with pure magnesia, but he only obtained very feebly hydraulic limes. Dumas states positively, if more than 10 per cent. of magnesia be present, the limes begin to become poor; and that with 25 per cent. they become decidedly poor. Berthier, however, gives an analysis of the lime obtained from a mixture of the stone of Villefranche, near Paris, with dissolved silica, in the proportion of 5 of the stone to 1 of the silica, in

which the lime appears in the form of a carbonate, to the amount of . . . 609

The carbonate of magnesium . . . 0·301

„ of iron . . . 0·030

„ of manganese . . . 0·060

Total 1·000

The lime obtained thus became much harder under water than any even of the natural hydraulic limes. Again, when the magnesian limestones, found nearer Paris, are mixed with one-fifth of their bulk of silicious matter, in dissolution, they yield a lime still more energetic in its hydraulic properties, although the carbonate of magnesia is present in the proportion of 23 per cent.

Vicat, in a recent article upon the magnesian limestones, endeavours to resume our knowledge of the subject; but his conclusions are far from satisfactory, and there still remains a doubt upon the action of the magnesia, which it were much to be desired that modern chemists should remove. He says, that “without clay, that is to say, without silica, limes cannot be decidedly hydraulic. The different combinations I have tried, by mixing pure chalk and magnesia, have only produced limes susceptible of setting in the commencement, without any ulterior progress; but this solidification, imperfect though it be, denotes in the magnesia certain hydraulic properties which the alumina itself does not possess. If, then, some portions of clay be present, it might happen that a triple hydrate, of lime, of alumina, and of magnesia, might be formed, which should poss-

all the conditions of hardness and of progression which characterize the best hydraulic limes."

He further states that two species of limestones which were found to consist respectively, before burning, as follows, viz.—

Clay	.	.	4'00	}	and	{	5'50
Carbonate of lime			42'50				52'00
„ of magnesia			53'50				42'50

gave limes possessing the hydraulic character in an eminent degree. Parandier states that a stone composed of 58 parts of carbonate of lime, 11 of clay, and 31 of carbonate of magnesia, yields a very excellent hydraulic lime.

One law is however certain, namely, that no limestones are able to produce an hydraulic lime, unless silica be present in combination with alumina. All experiments, both analytical and synthetical, show that in the proportions cited in the beginning of this chapter, the silicate of alumina is capable of communicating the different qualities therein mentioned. It may, therefore, be regarded, practically, as the most efficient agent in producing the power of setting under water; and as being the one whose presence should be most sought for, and supplied, whenever it is desired to obtain limes of that description.

Owing to the inconceivable negligence of the engineering profession in our country, we have no statistical account of the various hydraulic limes produced in England. It may, therefore, be interesting if we were to state the laws which appear to regulate

the geological distribution of the rocks which supply them. The knowledge of these laws may prevent many useless researches, and save, perhaps, some injudicious outlay of capital.

It is known that every stratified geological formation comprehends a series of beds, whose deposition corresponds with the various periods of existence of the marine basin in which they were formed, which marine basin must have had its hydrographical limits, its affluents, &c. In the first periods, immediately after the cataclysms and the great erosions (which, in disturbing the *statu quo* of the preceding geological epoch, had given rise to the new order of things), the sedimentary deposits must principally have owed their origin to the matters held in suspension in the liquid. They must have taken the form, for the most part, and throughout the whole extent of the basin, of agglomerated rocks, sandstones, clays, &c., except in the isolated points of the affluents, in the great depressions of the bottom, and in the very deep waters, where the materials brought down by the currents could not arrive, and where the beds took a degree of compactness different from that which is to be found on the borders of the basin. By degrees the matters held in chemical suspension in the waters, and which were in the beginning mingled with those in mechanical suspension thus brought down, began to deposit, in greater relative proportions, as soon as the geological condition of the basin had resumed a normal state. At times recurrences of the great agitations of the strata reproduced in the same geological epoch, but always

during a shorter period, and with less intensity, the same phenomena.

Thus, in the lower divisions of the secondary strata, we find the marls, the siliceous sands, and clays, the calcareous marls, the ferruginous strata; then the limestones with all the different varieties of texture and composition; and, lastly, we find the magnesian limestones. The contact of certain formations either contemporaneous with, or posterior to, the formation of the different strata, often modifies these last. The presence of certain ingredients, and the secular action of the exterior agents, also often produce very remarkable modifications or alterations, and even some molecular transformations, which are very curious, changing even the chemical and physical properties of the rocks. But these phenomena have their particular laws, and their definite epochs of appearance: and we can calculate with a tolerable degree of certainty upon the extent of their action.

It is easily to be conceived, from what is stated above, that we should be able to predicate within certain limits the points at which the rocks are likely to contain the elements the most favourable to the attainment of the object in view in such researches as the one before us. The materials likely to furnish us the sands and clays fit to be converted into artificial puozzolanos, are generally to be met with at the bottom of the sedimentary formations. The limestones likely to yield hydraulic limes occur amongst the marly or argillaceous beds; or at the points where these last pass into the purer cal-

careous rocks, and which are marked by the intercalation of strata of limestone and clays. The upper members of all the series may be regarded as being too free from argillaceous matter to furnish anything but rich limes.

Amongst the secondary formations we find, for instance, that the lower chalk marl passes into the clays of the gault, or the upper green sand; and that it yields a lime which is often eminently hydraulic. In the green sand there are few solid calcareous rocks; there are few also in the lower members of the cretaceous formations below the green sand. Hydraulic limes are to be obtained from the beds of limestone intercallated between the marls of the Kimmeridge clay; and also in the Oxford clay at the passage between the upper and lower calcareous groups of this division of the sedimentary rocks.

A very important observation is to be made respecting the results of the calcination of the different limestones. It is, that those which are obtained from the stones containing much silica in the composition of the clay, swell in setting, and are likely to dislocate the masonry executed with them. Those, on the contrary, in which the alumina is in excess, are likely to shrink and to crack. The magnesian limestones, or dolomites, appear to be the least exposed to these inconveniences, and to retain without alteration their original bulk. The limes obtained from the Oxford clay generally swell; those from the chalk marl contract.

Another observation is, that the limestones which contain many fossils, are also exposed to the serious

inconvenience of producing a lime exposed to the risk of slacking at various and uncertain periods. Whether it arise from the fact that the decomposition of the animal matter had previously affected the nature of the limestone in contact with it, or from that of the different action of the calcination upon the shells, we mostly find that the fossiliferous limestones contain black spots which do not slack at the same time as the rest of the lime, or which retain their avidity for water to a later period; and in either case they swell, and disintegrate the mass around them.

It were to be desired that a series of observations were made upon the different limestones throughout England, with a view to the classification of the limes they produce. To aid the formation of a set of tables of this kind, we subjoin a list of the headings under which the observations should be arranged.

Column 1. The number of the specimen.

„ 2. The locality whence extracted.

„ 3. The geological position and mineralogical name.

„ 4. The geological constitution and importance of the beds and country on which the observations are made.

„ 5. The physical characteristics of the stone.

„ 6. The chemical analysis.

„ 7. The mode of burning.

„ 8. The properties of the matter burnt.

„ 9. Observations upon the slacking of the lime.

Column 10. Observations upon the trials of its hydraulicity.

„ 11. General remarks.

The mode of analysis recommended by Berthier to ascertain whether a stone be, or be not, fit to be burnt for the purpose of obtaining an hydraulic lime is as follows :—

“ The stone should be powdered, and passed through a silk sieve ; ten grammes of this dust are to be put into a capsule, and by degrees diluted muriatic acid is to be poured upon it, stirring it up continually with a glass or wooden rod ; when the effervescence ceases no more acid is to be added. The dissolution is then to be evaporated by a gentle heat until it is reduced to the state of a paste ; it is then to be mixed with a half of a litre of water, and filtered ; the clay will remain upon the filter. This substance is to be dried and weighed ; the desiccation being made as perfect as possible. Lime water is then to be added to the remaining solution as long as any precipitation takes place from it. This precipitate must be collected as quickly as possible upon a filter ; it is then desiccated and weighed. It is magnesia, often combined with iron and manganese.” For all practical purposes the above analysis is sufficiently accurate, and enters into all the details necessary.

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE CALCINATION OF LIMESTONES.

THE calcination of limestones may be effected in various manners; it requires certain conditions which are very simple and easily attainable. The carbonate of lime requires to be brought to a red heat, in order that the carbonic acid gas may be disengaged; and it must be maintained in a continued and uninterrupted manner at that heat, during several hours, in order that all the gas may escape. In general, the time necessary for the complete expulsion of the gas, will be in proportion to the size of the pieces of stone operated upon; it will be longer in proportion as the stones are bigger, denser, and drier. The operation will be shorter with limestone broken into small pieces, of a lighter nature, and moister. So well known is this last fact, that the limeburners water the stone, if they are prevented from using it fresh from the quarry.

It is easy to conceive that the interior parts of large pieces of limestone can only receive the heat through an envelope of feebly conducting powers; and, moreover, that the carbonic acid gas has a certain pressure to overcome, in this case, before it can escape. The influence of the water may be explained in two manners: either it acts upon the carbonate of lime by entering into the formation of a temporary hydrate, and by replacing the carbonic acid for a very short space of time in the parts of the limestone first affected by the fire (for the hydrate itself, as we

have already seen, is decomposed by heat); or, the water, being itself decomposed by the combustible employed, takes the form of different gases, of which the hydro-carbonate may be one. This, reacting upon the carbonic acid of the limestone, tends to convert it into an oxide of carbon; and thus facilitates its separation from the stone. During the decomposition, a species of struggle is going on between two molecular forces: the one, which tends to make the carbonic acid take the gaseous form; the other, which retains it in combination. The latter force, like all those of the chemical affinities, increases as the operation proceeds. If, then, the temperature be not gradually augmented, the expansive power of the gas will be equilibrated by its affinity for the lime, and there would be no reason to determine a solution of the equilibrium. The intensity of the heat must therefore be gradually augmented; and, from these considerations, it becomes evident that the said intensity cannot be superseded by the length of exposure to its application.

In practice, whenever the nature of the limestone is such as to render its being broken into small fragments too expensive an operation, the limeburners place the largest blocks in the centre, and in the positions where they are exposed to the greatest heat. Generally speaking, the temperature to be produced in a kiln is also, from the size of the stones, much greater than is necessary for the molecular decomposition. It is, in fact, a question of economy, whether the saving of the fuel compensates for the expense of breaking the stones into very small pieces.

In burning limestones which yield either poor or hydraulic limes, a chemical action is produced by means of which the clay, silex, magnesia, oxide of iron, &c., enter into combination with the lime, and by so doing facilitate the disengagement of the carbonic acid gas. They add a new force to that of the heat, for as the lime has more affinity for them than for the carbonic acid, it seeks to quit its original state to enter into the new combination. The presence of these ingredients in the limestone, therefore, facilitates the calcination. But the action of the alumina, of the magnesia, and of the oxide of iron, either together, or separately, seems to be confined within these limits. The addition of silica, even in very small doses, appears to determine a vitrification, which alters the nature of the lime very seriously. In all cases, therefore, where argillaceous limestones are used, it is necessary to exercise great care and attention in the regulation of the mode of calcination.

General Treussart, in his observations upon the burning of lime, says, "that all the limestones upon which he operated when of a blue colour became of an ochreous yellow if burnt in a slight degree. Upon augmenting the degree of heat, the colour passed successively to a deep yellow, to an ash-gray, and at last to a slate-coloured blue, when the heat was very intense." The mode in which he accounts for this blue colour is, by supposing that the iron has been reconverted into the state of a protoxide. Similar facts occur in brick burning, when the clay employed contains much oxide of iron, and is of a very dark colour. At a certain degree of the calcination, the

iron they contain passes to the state of a red oxide, as in the bricks employed in London under the name of "place" or even "stock bricks;" if the heat be increased they become yellow, or straw colour, like the "pickings" and the malm pavours; then if the heat be further increased they become ash-gray, or blue, like the glazed headers of commerce. The iron, in this case, must have lost its oxygen to a great extent.

General Treussart appears inclined to differ from Vicat upon the question as to whether the colour of a lime may be taken as an approximate indication of its quality. According to the former, the best hydraulic limes, when properly burnt, are of a light straw colour. It is much to be desired that some such easy mode of distinguishing at once the degree of calcination were ascertained, for the qualities of the lime are very seriously affected by the heat it has been exposed to.

The importance of ascertaining the proper point at which to stop the calcination becomes more evident, when we consider that some of the hydraulic limes, if over-burnt, lose all their useful properties, and are, to use the workman's phrase, killed: if under-burnt, they are often poor, without any hydraulic powers. The purer limestones, or those which yield rich limes, present other phenomena equally inexplicable in the present state of our knowledge of the science. For instance: if chalk be burnt in such a manner as to drive off all the carbonic acid gas it contains, it yields a lime whose hydrate never solidifies under water, as we have already seen. If the calcination

be stopped at a point below that necessary for the expulsion of the gas, the lime produced does not change in bulk by slacking, and it will be found to set under water almost as rapidly as the moderately hydraulic limes. If over-burnt, the same chalk-lime reassumes the power of hydraulicity, which it had lost at the point at which the gas was entirely disengaged. No series of observations has yet been made upon the action of limes in the different states of their calcination; but General Treussart states that those which have been over-burnt swell in setting; and some observations I have myself made upon the Portland cement (to be noticed hereafter) rather tend to confirm that assertion.

No absolute rule can be laid down as to the description of combustible to be employed. In our own country, the choice is practically limited to two sorts, coal or coke; and the only reason we can have to decide our preference must be based upon motives of economy. In some countries, Germany, Holland, the French Flanders, &c., peat is used very successfully when the kilns are constructed for the use of this combustible. In new countries, where wood abounds, it is largely used for lime-burning; but the kilns are, in such cases, made with hearths upon which the wood is burnt separately from the limestone; for the wood is not well adapted to what are called running kilns. The same objection also applies to fresh coal; it often cakes, and runs; thus not only impeding the calcination, but also giving rise to great impurities in the lime. If any use of the produce of the distillation of the coal

can be made, there is then an evident advantage in the employment of coke, for the gases which the latter gives off during combustion, arrive at once at their highest degree of temperature; whilst, with those from the coal in its natural state, the combustion is continued far beyond the surfaces of contact, and the temperature only arrives at its maximum at the end of this combustion. The quantity of smoke that escapes from the mouth of a kiln where coal is burnt, may be taken as an indication and a proof of the combustible wasted. But, as was said before, the determining motive in the choice of combustible, must be found in local considerations of economy.

The limestone is sometimes burnt in large stacks in the open air, consisting of alternate layers of stone and of coal, similar, in fact, to the mode of burning bricks in clamps. The same care is required as with the latter, in well coating the sides with clay, to retain the heat as much as possible; and the heaps require the same attention to secure an equality of draught, so that the whole mass may be burnt alike. This method can, however, only be employed in the coal districts of any country, for the waste of combustible by radiation of the heat is enormous.

The forms of kilns usually employed may be classed as follows:—1. A rectangular straight prism. 2. A cylinder. 3. A cylinder surmounted by a truncated cone. 4. A reversed straight-sided cone, or funnel. 5. A cone of different diameters, or a form produced by the revolution of an ellipsoid.

The rectangular prisms are used in some parts of the continent for the purpose of burning at the same time both lime and bricks or tiles. The limestone occupies the lower half; the upper part is filled with the bricks or the tiles placed on edge.

The cylindrical kilns are principally used in situations where large quantities of lime are required within a short space of time. They are rarely constructed for definitive use; they are easily built, cheap, but not of long duration. An archway is first made to form the hearth; a round tower is then constructed upon this to form the kiln itself, which may be either in limestone, brick, or any material of those natures; the outside is rendered with clay so as to effectually stop all the holes, and this envelope is maintained by a rough kind of hurdle, taking care to leave an opening in front of the hearth.

The kilns of the third form are constructed of more solid materials and in a more permanent manner. They serve only for the purpose of lime burning, without admixture of bricks. The largest stones are placed in the bottom of the kiln; the smaller pieces are placed in the straight cylindrical part at the top. These kilns are superior to the others before mentioned, inasmuch as the heat is reverberated from the sides, and cannot escape into the air without producing a useful effect.

These three forms of kilns are used principally for intermittent fires, and in cases where wood, or rich flare coal, is burnt. The two last-named forms are more especially employed when coke or poor coal

is the combustibile used. In the countries where peat is burnt, the kilns are constructed in the fifth form.

The inside of the kilns is generally built of fire bricks, or of such materials as resist the action of the fire, set in fire clay for a thickness of from 14 to 18 inches. The object to be attained by the choice of materials is to employ such as have the smallest conductive powers possible, and which, when once heated, retain that state the longest.

When the kilns are worked by intermittent heat, either from wood or coal, the limestone charge rests upon arches, constructed of the large pieces to be burnt, laid dry. A small fire is lighted below these arches, and quite at the back; this is gradually increased towards the mouth as the draught increases. The opening is then regulated to secure the proper degree of combustion, and new combustibile is added to maintain it to that point. The air, which enters by the fire door, carries the flame to all the parts of the arch, and gradually brings the whole mass into a state of incandescence. Some stones are exposed to the inconvenience of cracking, and bursting with a loud explosion, by the application of heat. It is dangerous to use them in the construction of the arches; care must therefore be taken only to use such as are exempt from this inconvenience.

When the upper part of the kiln is of a smaller dimension than the lower, it often happens that the current of heated air, being impeded in its escape, returns, and drives the flame through the fire door. It is advisable, therefore, for this and for several

other reasons connected with the draught of the kilns, to make the upper part in such a manner as to allow of the openings being enlarged or contracted as the case may require. In some places the lime-burners, in filling the charge, introduce pieces of wood, placed vertically, in order to facilitate the circulation of the air and heat. These pieces are burnt at an early stage of the process, and they leave spaces which act as chimneys. It admits, however, of question whether the circulation, being so much more active in these parts, does not produce an unequal calcination.

The degree of heat to be obtained varies according to the density and the humidity of the limestone, from 15 to 30 degrees of Wedgewood's pyrometre. The length of time necessary for the perfect calcination can only be ascertained by experience. It depends not only upon the nature of the stone, and the quality of the combustible, but also upon the draught of the kiln, the state of the atmosphere, and the direction of the wind. Before the operation is completed in the lower portion, a gradual subsidence of the mass takes place; the stones which form the arches crack, the interstices diminish, and at length the charge sinks one-sixth or one-fifth of its height. A very simple and effectual way of ascertaining whether the calcination is complete, is to drive a bar into the body of the charge. If it meet with a considerable resistance, or strike against the firm hard materials, it is a proof that the burning is not finished. But if, on the contrary, it penetrate easily, and only meet with a resistance similar to that which it would meet

with in passing through a mass of gravel, the calcination may be regarded as complete. Another method of ascertaining this, consists in drawing a sample of the lime upon which a direct essay is made; but this is liable to error, according to the position the piece may have occupied in the kiln.

Running kilns, in which the stone and coal, or coke, are mixed in alternate layers, are the most difficult to manage with certainty, although when in favourable conditions they are the most economical. A mere change in the direction of the wind, a falling in of the inner parts of the kiln, an irregularity in the size of the pieces of limestone, are any of them causes sufficient to retard or accelerate the draught, by producing irregular movements in the descent of the materials, and thus give rise to either excessive or defective calcination. At times a kiln will act perfectly for several weeks, then all of a sudden it will get out of order without any apparent reason. A mere change in the nature of the combustible will often produce so great a difference in the action as to defy all the calculations of the limeburner. In fact, the running kilns are essentially matters of practice, and as to their results little can be predicted with certainty.

The most favourable conditions to insure a successful result from this mode of burning seem to be, that the thickness of the charge of limestone do not exceed from 1 ft. to 14 in.; that the charge do not pass the top of the kiln; and that the combustible be well and equally distributed throughout the mass. The man charged with the direction of the operation,

must carefully watch the upper part of the furnace, and open fresh currents of air in the places where the gases in combustion do not pass. These may be ascertained by observing whether the stones are blackened by the smoke escaping through the top, for that evidently can only take place in the direction of the escape of the gases. Wherever, therefore, the stones remain unblackened, the kilnsman must pass a bar through them to open a new chimney.

The lime, whose calcination is complete, must be withdrawn with precaution, because a precipitate fall of the upper mass might derange the coal between the joints, and thus some of the layers might have an excess of coal, whilst others would be entirely without any. The upper parts of the charge must be well arranged after each withdrawal from the lower, the large unburnt pieces being thrown towards the centre, and proper currents of air formed through them. Generally speaking, the lime is extracted every morning and evening; on Sundays and holidays precautions must be taken to render the action of the fire less rapid. It is usual to light the fire in these kilns as soon as the third course of limestone and combustible is filled in, in order to avoid the serious inconvenience of being obliged to empty the kiln should the mass not get well into combustion.

Limes burnt in kilns adapted to periodical calcination have an advantage over those obtained from running kilns, insomuch as they preserve better in the open air. This appears to arise from the fact of their cooling more gradually; indeed, it is preferable with

the former kind, to shut the fire door, and only to allow the heat to escape from the top of the kiln ; this generally takes from six to eight hours after the complete extinction of the fire.

The combustion is carried on in the three first description of kilns on an average for three days and three nights ; but of course the duration must vary according to the circumstances of each particular case. They usually require about 60 cubic feet of oak timber ; 117 of fir ; about the same quantity of peat of the best quality ; 9 cubic feet of coal ; to produce about 35 cubic feet of lime. The running kilns do not consume on the average more than 7 cubic feet of coal for the same quantity.

The calcination of limes is, however, a subject still very little understood, and it is impossible, therefore, to enunciate any principles of universal applicability. There are so many disturbing causes in operation ; the difficulty of observation in all cases where large masses are in a state of simultaneous incandescence is so great ; that it will be long before we shall be able to ascertain the chemical and electrical phenomena which take place during these operations, with sufficient certainty to enable us to derive any practical benefit from them. At present our best guide is experience, and a kilnsman who has watched the action of his own kiln for years, knows more upon the subject than the first theoretician in the world. There is one opinion, however, received among workmen which it may be advisable to contradict at once ; namely, that if a calcination be interrupted, it can never be resumed. Messrs.

Petot and Hassenfraz have both practically demonstrated that such is not the case. But Vicat and Minard appear to be of opinion that the limes thus obtained by a re-calcination, as well as the rich limes when under-burnt, exist in a state which possesses very peculiar properties, the laws of which are entirely unknown to us in the present state of the science.

Attempts have been made to employ the waste heat which escapes from the top of the kilns, for the purpose of burning bricks or tiles, in a somewhat similar manner to that employed in the first description of kiln. The results are very doubtful; for if the bricks rest immediately upon the limestone they are liable to be distorted when this falls by the process of calcination. It is, moreover, an error to suppose that these articles require a less degree of heat than the lime itself. The only economical application, therefore, seems to be by drying the bricks, &c., gradually, before exposing them to a separate and distinct calcination.

In some countries the ashes which fall through the grates of the kilns are carefully collected and used as a water or hydraulic cement. They are found to be mixed with minute portions of lime which have fallen through the arches, and it is doubtlessly to their presence that we may attribute their useful action. Such cinders are usually sold at half the price of the lime. At Utrecht in Holland oyster shells are burnt in large quantities for the purpose of obtaining lime; but as the carbonate of lime they contain exists in a great state of purity, the lime is too rich

to be employed without the admixture of trass or puozzolano.

Limestone generally loses by calcination 0·45 of its weight from the evaporation of the water and the disengagement of the carbonic acid gas. Its diminution in bulk is far from being as remarkable; and moreover, it varies with the nature of the stone, and the degree of subdivision in which it exists before and after calcination. It may be estimated as varying between 0·1 and 0·2 of the original bulk. The difference in weight between the carbonate and the lime obtained from it, is also very uncertain; but it may be taken at about from 15 to 17 per cent. of the weight of the stone.

The general rules upon which limekilns should be constructed are as follows:—Firstly, the lining of the inside should be of fire bricks, because these materials resist the action of the fire better than any others; they preserve their form at a great heat, and conduct the heat with greater difficulty. Secondly, the total height of the interior opening must be such that the degree of heat existing at the top be that absolutely required to calcine the stone placed there, in the cases where the calcination is periodical. This is found, generally speaking, to be attained when the height is to the largest diameter in the proportion of 2 to 1. Thirdly, when the calcination takes place in running kilns, this proportion may be beneficially increased until it arrives even at 5 to 1; the usual proportions vary between 3 and 4 to 1. Fourthly, in kilns in which the calcination is intermittent, the upper opening should be about one-third of the

greatest diameter; the opening for the fire about one-fourth both in height and width. In those called running kilns, the upper orifice should be five times the diameter of the lower one when these kilns are in the form of reversed cones; the dimension of the lower orifice is usually about 1 ft. 8 in. Fifthly, the thickness of the external walls is not invulnerable, the only rule to be observed is to make them as thick as possible, in order to retain the greatest quantity of heat. No mistaken motives of economy should be allowed to interfere in this case, for the saving obtained in the cost of the masonry would be very soon absorbed by the waste of fuel. As was said before, the lining should be made from 14 to 18 inches in thickness.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE ARTIFICIAL HYDRAULIC LIMES.

ALTHOUGH the limestones which furnish hydraulic limes naturally are very plentifully distributed, circumstances may occur to render their employment too expensive. In such cases their want is supplied, at least upon the continent, by the use either of trass, or of pozzolano (either natural or artificial), which are mixed with the rich limes, or by the use of artificial hydraulic limes. Vicat, the inventor of the system of making the latter employed near Paris, naturally recommends their use. General Treussart, with the jealousy which so strangely marks the two divisions

of the engineering profession in France, the military and the civil, apparently for no other reason than because Vicat had so recommended the artificial hydraulics, gives the preference to the mixture of the trass, &c., with the rich limes. Experience has settled this question, however, in favour of Vicat's opinion; and unless the trass and puozzolanos are found in the most extraordinarily favourable conditions of economy, they are never used by engineers who have at all studied this branch of their profession.

Indeed, it must be evident that the chemical action produced upon the lime by the puozzolanos, can never be so perfect in its results as that which is called into activity during the process of calcination. Even if we leave out of account the effect of the heat in producing a more perfect chemical combination between the bases, there is always a danger attending the use of the subsequent mechanical mixtures. Either from carelessness, want of skill, or even in spite of the best intentions, it often happens that the mixture is not perfect; the limes and puozzolanos are so mingled that there is excess of lime in one place, of puozzolano in another. Very serious failures have occurred through their being employed in sea works, as we shall have occasion to notice hereafter. In the meantime, the experience of the best continental engineers has led them to prefer the use of the artificial hydraulic limes wherever natural ones are not to be met with.

There are two methods of preparing the artificial hydraulic limes. The first, which is the more per-

fect, but at the same time the more expensive, consists in mixing the slacked rich lime with a certain proportion of clay, and burning this compound. The lime in this case goes through a double calcination.

The second method consists in mixing, instead of the slacked lime, soft calcareous matters with the clays, such as chalk, or the tuffas of some of the other formations, and in reducing the whole to a paste by grinding them together in a mill. Being in both cases masters of the proportions of the different ingredients, it is easy to communicate the hydraulic properties in any degree of energy the works they are intended for may require.

Generally speaking twenty parts of dry clay are mixed with eighty parts of very pure rich lime, or with one hundred and forty parts of carbonate of lime; but if the lime or the carbonate contain already any clay in their composition, a smaller proportion would be necessary. It is impossible to say beforehand what the precise proportions should be, because the limestones and the clays of every locality differ in their nature. Of the latter, the finest and softest to the touch are the most preferable.

At Meudon, near Paris, some extensive lime works were erected under the directions of Vicat, by MM. Brian and St. Leger, for the manufacture of artificial hydraulics from the chalk and clays of that country. The chalk was divided into pieces of the size of a fist previously to being ground. A large vertical mill, with two horses, crushed and mixed together, with a plentiful supply of water, the materials which

were introduced in the proportion of four of the chalk to one of the clay. The liquid mixture was run off into a series of five troughs placed at successive differences of level, and deposited in them the matter it held in suspension. A double set of these troughs was necessary, in order that one might be worked whilst the liquid was depositing in the other. The shallower the troughs are in proportion to their surface, the more rapidly does the deposition take place.

As soon as the deposited matter becomes of sufficient consistence to support manipulation, it is made into small prisms with a mould. The prisms are then placed on a drying platform, and allowed to dry until they arrive at the state of freshly quarried limestone. They are then put into a kiln, and burnt by any of the modes we have already mentioned.

In England a somewhat similar process is followed in the manufacture of the Portland Cement, as it is very absurdly called. This is, in fact, nothing but an artificial hydraulic lime composed of the clay of the valley of the Medway mixed in certain definite proportions with the chalk of the same geological district. These materials are very finely comminuted under mills, and with water; they are allowed to deposit, and are then desiccated and burnt. But here begins the difference, and the most delicate part of the manufacture. Instead of merely driving off the carbonic acid gas, the calcination is pushed to a point which produces vitrification in a very considerable portion of the contents of the kiln. The lime is, in fact, overburnt; and it often happens that it is irregularly so. Great care is therefore required in grinding the

different products of the calcination, to secure a proper equality in their times of setting: for it is to be observed, that all the over-burnt limes, like the natural cements, slack with so much difficulty when in large masses, as to require to be broken up, or comminuted, before being used. There is also attached to the Portland cement the danger before alluded to of expanding in setting. It should, therefore, never be used, unless in positions where this action cannot be prejudicial to the solidity of the work. When carefully prepared, it is invaluable for external plastering, because it does not allow of the formation of vegetation like the natural cements; but it should be very carefully used for masonry in large masses.

General Treussart's experiments upon artificial hydraulic limes would lead to the belief that their quality would be much improved if they were prepared with water in which the soda and potash of commerce were mixed. The proportions he recommends are five measures in volume of chalk to one of clay, for the paste to be burnt: the lime to be subsequently slacked with water in which the above ingredients had been dissolved in the proportions necessary to bring the solution to the degree of 5° of the acid gauge.

It has been ascertained that the artificial hydraulic limes do not attain, even under favourable circumstances, the same degree of hardness, the same power of resistance to compression, as the natural limes of the same class. Of the latter, those which are obtained from the closest grained, and densest limestones, are the most resisting. They should, there-

fore, be used in preference, unless very serious reasons of economy oppose themselves. The above objection to the want of hardness does not, however, appear to apply to the over-burnt limes, for the Portland cement attains a power of resistance to crushing which is extremely remarkable.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE SLACKING OF LIMES.

THERE are three methods of slacking lime, about the relative merits of which chemists are even now at issue. The object to be obtained is to reduce the quick lime into a pasty hydrate, as unctuous as possible, and one which has absorbed the greatest possible quantity of water without having too much, and thereby losing a proper consistence. As we have already seen that every separate variety of limestone produces a lime of a different chemical composition, it is impossible to say, before making experiments upon each of them, the mode of slacking which would be the most advantageous. The three methods are either by immersion, or maceration; or, by sprinkling with small quantities of water; or, by allowing the lime to slack spontaneously by absorbing the moisture of the atmosphere. The circumstances which render it advisable to employ either the one or the other of these methods, may be stated as follows.

All the rich limes, as we have already seen, are

capable of being slacked by immersion ; they keep in a plastic state under water, and they even gain by being allowed to remain therein, for all the core becomes thus slacked. Plinius states that the Romans were so convinced of the truth of this, that the ancient laws forbade the use of lime unless it had been slacked for three years ; and that it was owing to this regulation that their works were not disfigured by cracks or crevices. Alberti mentions, in the 11th chapter of the second book, that he discovered once in an old trough, some lime which had been left there 500 years, as he was led to believe, by many indications around it ; and that this lime was as soft and as fit to be used as at first.

But when the limes are hydraulic in their action, when they absorb quickly the carbonic acid gas if reduced to the state of hydrates, it is important not to slack them before they are absolutely required ; as also it is important not to mix them with too much water, for this always interferes more or less with the crystallization in setting. Vicat recommends that the slow slacking limes, such in fact as are all the hydraulic ones, should be reduced to a powder before they are worked up into a paste for the making of mortar : that an imperfect slacking be commenced, in fact, before the lime is to be used. General Treussart, and all practical men, however, agree in considering this course not only as doubtful, but even as positively injurious. There are, it is true, in all limes, particles which slack with more difficulty than the rest ; and if these particles be introduced into the mortar, as they expand in slacking, they are likely

to disintegrate the rest of the work into which they enter. It is possible that this inconvenience is obviated by the imperfect slacking Vicat recommends; but it is also evident that the absorption of carbonic acid gas must also be going on, and that the lime is losing some of the concretionary force it should employ in place. Treussart asserts, and with justice, that all limes of an hydraulic character require to be used fresh from the kiln; that the workman's notion that the lime is killed by time is substantially true; and that the only precaution to be taken to ensure a perfect slacking should be to grind the fresh lime immediately before using it. Vicat, it is true, insists much upon the lime being slacked and immediately put into close casks; but that is only a mode of palliating the inconvenience. It is singular that Smeaton followed precisely the system Vicat recommends in transporting across the country the lime used for the Eddystone lighthouse. Hassenfraz, and many other writers upon the subject, appear to agree with Vicat; but experience is certainly against the conclusions to which they arrive.

The hydraulic limes, then, require to be slacked by one or the other of the modes described, as either by sprinkling them with small quantities of water, or by spontaneous absorption. Wherever it can be done economically, the former mode should be employed, the lime being previously ground. Should the position or the extent of the work to be executed not justify the expense of a mill for grinding the lime, the second may be employed.

The rich limes augment in slacking about two-fifths

in weight, and even as much as 3·52 of their original volume, or even more ; they absorb about one-third of their volume of water before passing to powder, and one-half before the powder becomes moist. The powder has already a very considerable augmentation upon the bulk of the lime itself, sometimes to the extent of double its original volume. To pass into a paste fit for mortar, the powder will again absorb about $1\frac{1}{2}$ time its own bulk of water ; and it is then about $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 times the bulk of the lime. The hydraulic limes absorb considerably less water, and only increase in bulk from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ at most.

There are still some unexplained phenomena in the action of the hydrates, which are worthy of attracting the attention of the scientific world. For instance : even though the lime be reduced to the state of a paste, it nevertheless retains its power of absorbing water during a long interval of time. And we have already seen that although it has so great an affinity for the water, yet it parts with it very easily upon the application of heat or friction. It is this latter faculty that the workmen bring into action when, as they say, they chafe up again a lime which has been made for some time. With the hydraulic limes this system is bad, and it should never be allowed, for the solidification once interrupted, it is often put a stop to for ever. The same inconvenience does not appear to be attached to the re-working of the rich limes.

With the very moderately hydraulic limes used in London, no great precautions are necessary in slack-ing the lime, nor does the operation require much

time. The usual mode of throwing water over the lime, and then covering the latter with sand to retain the vapour given off, answers sufficiently well for buildings in the air, and in which the common Dorking or Halling limes are used. If the blue lias lime be used, however, it is necessary to begin the slacking about 24 hours before it is made into mortar, in order that the more inactive parts may be called into action.

When the lime is reduced to the state of a hydrate, it is to be converted into mortar, for the purposes of masonry, by the additions of sand. The carbonic acid gas of the atmosphere is absorbed by the hydrates, and they resume the crystalline form of the carbonate of lime, by arranging themselves around the bodies with which they are in contact. This process goes on from the outside towards the centre, and with a rapidity varying with the nature not only of the lime itself, but also with that of the sand; for the chemical nature of the latter has nearly as much influence upon the progress of the crystallization as its mechanical structure. It is not found that the carbonization of the lime ever attains the same degree as that which exists in the limestone; and we may, therefore, assert that almost all mortars are in a constantly increasing state of induration, if that operation has ever commenced. This same fact also renders the recalcination of lime more easy than the original operation; the carbonic acid gas has not entered into such intimate union, in the second case, as when the mixture had taken place naturally. The thickness of the comparatively perfectly carbonated

film, upon the hydraulic lines is, at the end of the first year, about $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch; about $\frac{1}{8}$ th upon the rich limes. The further annual progress goes on in a decreasing ratio; for it is evident that the increasing thickness of the film must oppose an increasing resistance to the transmission of the gas necessary to produce the desired effect.

Some curious facts might be mentioned, not only to show the influence of a large body of masonry in retarding the solidification of the mortar in the interior, but also of the danger of using the rich limes in cases where such masses are necessary. Amongst them, we may mention a fact cited by General Treussart, who had occasion to demolish, in the year 1822, one of the bastions erected by Vanbau, in the citadel of Strasbourg, in the year 1666. In the interior the lime, after these 156 years, was found to be as soft as though it were the first day on which it had been made. Dr. John mentions that, in demolishing a pillar, nine feet in diameter, in the church of St. Peter, at Berlin, which had been erected 80 years, the mortar was found to be perfectly soft in the interior. In both cases, the lime used had been prepared from pure limestone.

Pure water absorbs or takes up all the non-carbonated parts of the hydrates of lime. For all purposes, therefore, in which it is required to build in water, or to expose the constructions to the action of that fluid, it is necessary to employ such limes only as absorb the carbonic acid gas instantaneously. Many instances occur in which works executed with the rich lime have failed, from the fact of all the

mortar having been carried away: amongst others, the locks constructed for the improvement of the navigation of La Vilaine, which fell in from the cause mentioned.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE SANDS AND OTHER INGREDIENTS USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH LIME TO MAKE MORTAR.

THESE ingredients are of several natures, and they exercise very different and very important effects upon the qualities of the respective combinations into which they enter. They are, 1, the sands, properly so called, whether fluvial or pit sand; 2, the clays, either in their natural or their burnt state; 3, the puozzolanos, trass, or other volcanic productions; and, 4, the produce of artificial calcination, such as cinders, slag of furnaces, or scorïæ.

1. Sands are derived originally from the decomposition of the older rocks, either by the action of running water, or by the spontaneous decomposition of the rocks themselves. They are technically distinguished from dust, by the fact that they sink at once to the bottom of water, without leaving any sensible quantity in suspension. The decomposition of the rocks often gives rise to a kind of agglutinating substance, which accompanies the sand, and binds it together. But this only takes place in the positions where the sand is found "in situ;" washed by the rains and the running waters, it soon parts

with these heterogenous particles, and it arrives comparatively pure in the bed of the river. This purity is lost as the river approaches its embouchure; for, in the first place, the diminished velocity of the current causes the heavier particles to subside before arriving there; the waters then only carry down the light earthy particles, and the decaying vegetable matters which may fall into them, thus giving rise to the formation of clay deposits. The constituent parts of the sand represent faithfully the rocks from whence they are derived; thus the granitic rocks produce a sand, the principal ingredients of which are the quartz, the feldspar, and mica; the volcanic rocks are represented by sands in which lava, obsidian, &c., appear; the flat, soft-grained sands arise from the disintegration of the schistose rocks; the calcareous rocks, as might naturally be expected from their soft nature, are those which are the least represented in the series, unless in the case of the silicious sands, arising from the comminution of the flints so plentiful in some of the secondary formations.

The partial and secondary revolutions of the globe have given rise to immense formations of sand in places where rivers have long ceased to flow. The sand extracted thencefrom is known under the name of "pit sand," to distinguish it from that borne down by the rivers, called "river sand," and from the "virgin sand," which remains in the places where formed, without in any way suffering the action of water. Pit sand generally is of a sharper and more angular grain than river sand; but in all other re-

spects its composition is identical, excepting that it is occasionally stained by ochres.

The generally received opinion that the sand should be perfectly free from all earthy matters, is only true to a certain extent. There exists a species of sand in very large masses in some parts of France, where it forms even entire hills, consisting of comminuted chalk in irregular grains, very unequal in size, and mingled with a clay sometimes yellow, red, brown, or even white, in proportions varying from a quarter to three quarters of the total volume. It is known under the name of "arènes," and is largely used in conjunction with rich limes for river and water works. Some of the decomposed grauwacké rocks also yield an argillaceous sand, composed of quartz, schiste, feldspar, and particles of mica agglutinated by a species of clay, which is very valuable, whether used in its natural state, or calcined to make artificial puozzolanos, like the arènes.

2. The clays are rarely used in their natural state in combination with lime, unless it be to give a certain degree of consistence to mud walls or pisé work. When burnt, they act somewhat in the manner of puozzolanos; and for all cases in which the mortars thus made are not exposed to the action of sea water, they appear to answer very well. The Romans were perfectly aware of the practical value of this process, for many of their works which have survived to the present day, especially the aqueducts, were executed with a mortar containing pounded bricks or tiles.

M. Raffineau de Lille made a very important

essay of the artificial cements obtained from pounded bricks in some works he executed, in fresh water, near Calais. There it answered as well as the ancient Romans had found it to have done. He called the attention of Vicat to the question, and that eminent chemist, after a laborious series of experiments, arrived at the conviction that the action of the burnt clay was in every respect analogous to that of the puozzolanos. Berthier had previously shown that the latter materials consisted principally of the silicate of alumina mixed with a very small proportion of lime and iron; and as Vicat found the clays to differ in their composition only in the fact of their being hydro-silicates of alumina with nearly the same foreign ingredients, he thought that all that was necessary would be to drive off the water of combination to render the clays as useful for hydraulic purposes as the puozzolanos. His experiments led him also to believe that a low degree of heat produced the best results, provided that it were managed in such a way as to allow the free access of the air to all parts of the matter in incandescence.

General Treussart applied similar artificial puozzolanos on a large scale at Strasbourg. Other essays were made at Algiers, the Fort Boyard in the Ile de Ré, at Brest, and at Cherbourg. At Strasbourg no accident has occurred; but in all the cases where the cements thus prepared were exposed to the seawater, they appeared to set very satisfactorily at first—the favourable appearances lasted even for three or four years—but at the expiration of that time all these cements fell to powder.

Some very important lessons are to be derived from these failures. Firstly, they demonstrated clearly that the greatest possible care must be taken to ensure a perfect mixture of the ingredients of these cements, for the molecules of the silicate of alumina cannot enter into combination with the lime unless they be mixed with them in a state of very minute division. *A priori*, then, we may assert that it is preferable to mix the clay with the carbonate, or the subcarbonate, before calcination. Secondly, it would appear that there must be a specific difference between the puozzolanos produced by the slow action of volcanic heat upon the various ingredients, and that produced by an artificial calcination, even should there not be a difference in the chemical constitution of the respective substances.

Vicat studied the causes of these failures, and was led by them to some conclusions which may probably explain, not only the disintegration of the limes, but also the destruction of some of the building-stones, by sea-water. He found in the sea-water a very considerable portion of hydrochloride of magnesia, and he proceeded to experiment upon its action upon the hydrates and imperfect carbonates of lime. He found that in a simple solution of the hydrochloride, the particles which were already in a state of perfect carbonization remained intact; but, that the particles which were simply in the state of hydrates passed into that of a soluble hydrochloride, and that the magnesia was introduced into the mass and disseminated throughout the whole tissue. It there quickly passed to the state of a

carbonate, with the greater facility when any carbonic acid gas was present. From this Vicat was led to think that the imperfectly carbonated parts of the cements, whose failure led to the investigation, must have taken up the magnesia from the sea-water, and passed to hydro-carbonates of lime and magnesia, similar to the dolomites, whose formation may perhaps be accounted for in like manner. This would of course be accompanied by a mode of crystallization different from that of the ordinary carbonate of lime, leading, doubtlessly, to the disintegration of the whole mass.

The engineer charged with the direction of the works at Rochefort told me that, besides taking up the magnesia, and passing to the state of a carbonate of lime and magnesia, the mortars at Fort Boyard contained crystals of sulphate of lime. Now, as the sea-water does contain a considerable portion of the sulphate of magnesia, it is very probable that the lime may have absorbed the sulphuric acid thus presented, and given rise to the new combination, which in its turn must have contributed to destroy the cohesion of the whole body, for the tendency of the sulphate of lime in crystallizing is known to be expansive.

The practical lesson to be drawn from these researches would be, never to employ the artificial puozzolanos, in the present state of our knowledge of this branch of chemistry, for any works of importance where water charged with salts is likely to affect them. It also shows how much care should be taken before employing new compounds in works

of importance; for we see that in these cases no symptom of decay manifested itself during the first three or four years. Such want of precaution is the more culpable in England, where we possess natural cements of such undoubted excellence, and where it would be so easy to procure the best hydraulic limes.

3. The puozzolano is a volcanic substance of a pulverulent character, and a violet red colour, which was first employed in the fabrication of mortars by the Romans. It was then, according to Vitruvius, found in the vicinity of Puozzoli, near Baia, and not far from Vesuvius. Subsequently a similar material has been found in the Vivarais, a theatre of extinct volcanic action in the centre of France; near Edinburgh; at a village called Brohl, near Andernach on the Rhine, where it is worked under the name of trass or terrass; and in almost all the localities marked either by the present or past action of subterranean fires. Its aspect varies, however, very much; sometimes it is in a state of powder, at others in coarse grains; often in the form of pumice, scoria, or of tuffa or small rubble-stone. Its colour is often brown, or yellow, or grey, or black, even in the same locality.

The Tripoli, and the sandstones and limestones altered by contact with the rocks of eruption, also frequently take the character of puozzolanos, and may be classed, therefore, as pseudo-volcanic products of a similar category. But the conditions under which they were exposed to the heat of the volcanic rocks, and under which they gradually

cooled, have necessarily modified their chemical and mechanical nature.

The puozzolanos are principally composed of silica and alumina, with a little lime in combination, mixed with potash, soda, magnesia, and oxide of iron. The iron appears to be in a peculiar state of magnetism; for although in very feeble proportions, it is capable of affecting the needle.

Berthier gives the following analysis of the puozzolano of Civita Vecchia and of the trass of Andernach:—

	Trass.	Puozzolano.
Silica	0.570	0.445
Alumina	0.120	0.150
Lime	0.026	0.088
Magnesia	0.010	0.047
Oxide of iron	0.050	0.120
Potash	0.070	0.014
Soda	0.010	0.040
Water	0.096	0.092
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	0.952	0.996
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Essays have also been made with the basaltic and trass rocks in the same manner as with the puozzolanos, and the result has been found to be the same. The difficulty of breaking or pounding them, however, is a very serious objection to their economical employment. Indeed the manner of action of these various volcanic productions is still so much involved in obscurity that it is a matter of great doubt whether the lavas are highly to be recommended. If

the action be merely chemical, of course, when well ground, they are likely to produce the same effect as their congeners; although all this class of substances vary within very wide limits in their chemical composition. If it be merely mechanical, and arise only from their porosity and the facility with which they absorb and combine with the water, their density is a very serious objection. Vicat is of opinion that basalt should be burnt so as to produce a vitrification before it is employed.

Whatever be the cause of the peculiar action of the basaltic rocks, it is evident that the effect produced by the mixture of the puozzolanos and trass is eminently useful in rendering the richest limes fit for every description of works executed in either sea or fresh water. Smeaton used them in the Eddystone Lighthouse with the blue lias lime. Since then, and previously, even as far back as the time of Vitruvius, they had and have been employed in conjunction with limes obtained from chalk and crystalline limestone with perfect success. The essential difference in these cases is, that less is required when hydraulic limes are used, than when they are mixed with the rich limes. The latter will bear at the same time a large quantity of sand or gravel, the former only a very small quantity. The results, if the proportions be well regulated, are the same; the determination of the sort of lime must, therefore, be entirely guided by motives of economy.

4. The term "slag" is usually applied to the vitrified earths which are left in furnaces, either for glass or iron, after the purer products are withdrawn.

"Scoriæ" are the lighter, more porous, and less perfectly vitrified earths, which arise principally from the puddling and refining of iron; the term is also applied to the less compact portions of the slag. Cinders are the earthy residues from the combustion of woods, peat, coal, or other combustibles.

The slags and scoriæ differ very considerably in their chemical nature, partly from the constitution of the minerals from which they are obtained, partly from the different action of the furnaces from whence they are produced. They principally consist of silica, with a feeble proportion of alumina, lime, magnesia, and very large proportions of the oxides of iron and manganese. Hassenfraz and Berthier give the following analysis of these materials, namely—

Place.	State.	Substance.	Silica.	Alumina.	Lime.	Magnesia.	Oxides of	
							Iron.	Manganese.
Allevard .	Black .	Slag	49	4	10	2.4	21	11
St. Hélène	Bad . .	"	71	2.5	7	3	4	8
Breteil .	Black .	"	47	11	23	...	7	...
Kaiserlautern	"	"	49	15	30	...	13	...
Mont Blanc	"	Scoriæ .	23	1	2	1	45	24
"	"	"	18	1	14	1	61	9
"	"	"	9	1	10	8	56	3
Rives . .	"	"	29	...	18	2	44	4

On comparing these results with those obtained from the analysis of the puozzolano and trass, we perceive at once a very remarkable difference in the proportion of the ingredients, as also we find that the scoriæ and the slag differ from one another. The slag, when the furnaces are well managed, contains but little iron; the scoriæ contain so much

that they are at the present day almost invariably worked over again in the most economically managed iron works,—producing, it is true, very inferior iron.

When ground into powder, the scoriæ and slags, which contain a large proportion of the mineral oxides, make very good mortars if mixed with middlingly or perfectly hydraulic limes. With the former it is not advisable to use them in positions where the mortars would be exposed to the action of water; with the latter they may be used to replace sand, sometimes with advantage.

Coal cinders, according to Weigleb, Dolomieu, and Panzerberg, contain usually 44 parts of silica, 17 of alumina, 5 of lime, and 34 of oxide of iron. When properly mixed, they appear to render the rich limes moderately hydraulic. Great care requires to be exercised in their manipulation to proportion the quantity of water used, for they absorb it with such avidity that unless there be a large quantity present, they abstract it from the hydrate of lime, and render the crystallization of the latter imperfect. Workmen characterise this action by saying that the lime becomes short; in fact, its coherent powers are much diminished. If, however, the necessary precautions be taken, coal cinders may be usefully employed for works out of the water.

Wood cinders are often objectionable in consequence of the alkali they contain: if this be removed by washing, they may occasionally be useful in the absence of other materials capable of communicating hydraulic properties. Peat ashes have

never been tried in any scientific manner; but there does not appear to be any reason why they should not be as useful as those from wood.

In page 38 we already noticed the use of the clinkers which fall through the fire-bars of the lime-kilns. Their hydraulic properties appear to arise from the mixture of the lime in a very minute state with the silicate of alumina of the cinders. In Belgium they are very largely and very successfully used for canal and river works under the name of "cendrée de Tournay."

Vicat classes the different materials named and described above still further, according to the energy of their action upon the limes with which they are mixed. He calls "very energetic" any substance which, after being mingled with lime slacked in the usual manner, and brought to the consistence of a stiff paste, produces a mortar capable of setting from the first to the third day; of acquiring after the lapse of twelve months a degree of hardness equal to that of a good brick, and of giving a dry powder if sawn with a tooth saw after that time.

"Simply energetic," any substance which will determine the setting from the fourth to the eighth day; and which is capable of acquiring after twelve months the consistence of a soft stone, and of giving a damp powder under the tooth saw.

"Slightly energetic," when the setting only takes place between the tenth and the twentieth day; the consistency of hard soap would be acquired after twelve months, and of clogging the tooth saw.

"Inert," when the materials, if mixed with rich

limes, exert no influence upon their action under water. In all these cases the mortars are to be immersed immediately. It is moreover to be observed that the degree of hardness attained is the only invariable characteristic, for the time of setting varies very considerably.

Having established these differences, Vicat ranges the common sands amongst the materials he classifies as "inert." The arènes and grauwacké rocks yield materials which are but slightly energetic. The puozzolanos, whether natural or artificial, are classed occasionally as being simply energetic or very energetic, as the case may be. Experience, however, shows that the artificial puozzolanos should only be ranged in the first class.

These different actions appear to be owing to the affinity of the several materials for the lime. Vicat found, in fact, that, if treated by acids and by lime water, they were distinguished from one another as follows:—the inert materials resisted the action of acids, unless when calcareous sand was operated upon, and were totally without influence, even upon boiling lime water. The slightly energetic materials yielded in a trifling degree to the acids, and took up a small proportion of the lime from the lime water. The energetic, and very energetic, materials were powerfully affected by the acids, and took up a very notable portion of the lime in solution.

The same author gives, as the result of forty years' experience, the following tables of the materials it is advisable to mix together to obtain the best results in the respective cases mentioned. He

supposes that the architect or engineer has under hand the four descriptions of lime, and the different substances to be mixed with them; and that in the first case he desires to obtain a mortar capable of attaining a great degree of hardness under water, under ground, or in places where there is a constant humidity. In the second case, where it is desired to obtain a mortar able to set in the open air, to resist rain, and the changes of the weather. He recommends then, to mix with

CASE THE FIRST.

Rich limes.	Moderately hydraulic.	Hydraulic.	Eminently hydraulic.
The very energetic puozzolanos, either natural or artificial.	The simply energetic puozzolanos. The very energetic ditto, mixed with half sand or other inert matter. The energetic arènes, or grauwacké rocks.	The slightly energetic puozzolanos. The energetic ditto, with half sand or inert matters. The slightly energetic arènes, &c.	The inert matters, such as sand, &c. Slag, scorïæ, &c.

CASE THE SECOND.

Rich limes.	Moderately hydraulic.	Hydraulic.	Eminently hydraulic.
No ingredient can attain the object.	No ingredient can perfectly attain the object.	Any description of sand; pounded quartz. The dust of pounded limestone and other inert matters.	Any description of sand; pounded quartz. The dust of pounded limestone and other inert matters.

General Treussart, however, does not agree with Vicat in supposing that the chalk, or rather the rich limes, cannot be rendered capable of setting by the mixture of puozzolanos; and, indeed, the experience of almost all builders would lead us to believe that Vicat has, in this case, been carried away by the love of theory. Gauthey, in his work upon the construction of bridges, however, seems rather to lean to Vicat's opinion.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE MAKING OF MORTARS.

THE making of mortar comprehends the slacking of the lime and the mixture of the ingredients worked up with it. As we have already seen, both the former process and the nature of the latter differ, according to the nature of the lime to be dealt with. It is, however, an universal rule, in contradiction to the slovenly practice of London builders, that all limes, of what nature soever, should be reduced to a paste before being mixed with the other ingredients.

People who have not studied the action of the hydrates in a scientific and consecutive manner, oppose the introduction of the previous manipulation of the lime on the score of the extra expense, and on the pretence that the lime loses in strength thereby. As to the objection of the expense, that must of course be estimated by the importance of the works. The

second objection is to be met by observing that the rich limes require to be for a long time exposed to the air to enable them to take up the carbonic acid gas ; and that, therefore, so far from losing, they gain by exposure ; and, moreover, the hydraulic limes being very difficult to slack, it is necessary that all their particles should be put in contact with the water. If the lime be not previously reduced into the state of a perfect hydrate, it is always exposed to blister, and to disintegrate, in a manner depending upon the comminution of its particles before being employed ; for it is evident that if the lime be ground, the more inactive particles are in a more favourable condition for the absorption of the water.

The degree of consistence of this paste should vary with the nature of the extraneous matters. It should be stiff whenever it is intended to form a gange for substances whose particles are hard and palpable, and which are capable of preserving sensible distances from one another. It should be more liquid when the substances to be mixed with it are pulverulent, of impalpable and fine grains, presenting an homogeneous appearance, and in which it is impossible to distinguish the separate elements, such as the pozzolanos, &c. To secure a proper state of the hydrate, it is of very great importance, however, not to use too much water in slacking the lime. So much should be used, and only so much, as is necessary to cause the quick lime to fall to powder. It is also equally important not to mix up into the state of paste more lime than is immediately required to

be used ; for although, upon being reworked, the hydrates, which had begun to carbonise, give off the water they had rendered latent, as it were, yet a portion of their force must evidently be lost by their doing so in proportion to the degree of advancement of the process.

In France, whenever great care is required in the fabrication of the mortars, the lime is worked up into a paste in a mill, consisting of two vertical stones working in a trough. The lime, after going through this operation, is then mingled with the sand in a pug-mill, or by hand, upon a floor. If the dimensions of the construction should be such as to justify the expense, it should be made a necessary condition that mechanical means be employed, for even with the greatest possible care the mixture by hand is never perfectly effected.

The quantities of sand to be used vary, as might be expected, according to the nature of the limes, and also of this sand. Within certain limits, if they do not gain by the mixture, at least their effect is not sensibly diminished. Thus we find that, for the rich limes, the resistance is rather increased if the sand be in the proportions varying from 50 to 240 per cent. of the paste measured in bulk in the state of a firm paste. Beyond that point the resistance decreases.

The resistance of hydraulic limes increases, if the sand be mixed in the proportion of 50 to 180 per cent. of the paste ; from thence it decreases. The much greater proportion of sand the rich limes are

able to support, may perhaps account for the partiality of the builders in their favour.

If it be required to mix common lime and puozzolanos, the best proportions, according to General Treussart, are 1 of lime in powder to $2\frac{1}{2}$ of puozzolano ; 1 of lime to 2 of trass ; or 1 of lime to 1 of sand, and 1 of puozzolano or trass.

The best hydraulic limes, as we have seen, lose much of their qualities if long exposed to the air ; it is therefore advisable to work them only for the time absolutely necessary to ensure, firstly, their perfect reduction to the state of hydrates ; and, secondly, the intimate mixture of the lime and sand. The rich limes, however, as we have before said, inasmuch as they absorb the carbonic acid gas with difficulty, gain by being exposed for a longer period to the contact of the atmosphere. As far as such a proceeding is consistent with economy, it is advisable, then, to protract the operation of their manipulation as much as possible ; it is even advisable to work up large quantities of such mortar beforehand, which are subsequently rendered fit for use by a second manipulation.

Some of Vicat's experiments show that all limes lose two-fifths of their strength if mixed with too much water. It is then better to wet the materials to be used, and to employ a stiff mortar, than to follow the course usually adopted by masons and bricklayers of using very fluid soft mortar. The system of grouting is more than questionable in its results ; the lime suspended in it is nearly destroyed, the

extra quantity of water is but an addition to the difficulties of setting opposed to the mortar already in place.

There are conditions of the atmospheric state which affect the goodness of the mortars, about whose action the best authorities are not decided: For instance, those made in summer are always worse than those made in winter. It has been supposed by some that this fact is accounted for by the too rapid desiccation of the mortar; and Vicat even asserts that they lose four-fifths of their strength if allowed to dry very rapidly. He recommends, in consequence, that the masonry be watered during the summer months, in all constructions of importance, to guard against this danger. Probably the hydrates are not in a favourable condition to absorb the carbonic acid gas, if they be allowed to dry rapidly; the presence of the water being necessary for the combination of the lime and the carbon.

The freedom of the water from carbonic acid gas in solution is also a necessary condition of the successful use of the hydraulic limes. Their success depends, in fact, upon the slow, gradual manner in which they take up that gas from the atmosphere, and crystallize about the nuclei offered to their action. Some engineers prescribe that the water should be deprived of such impurities by boiling, and although the precaution be rather exaggerated, it is certainly of a useful tendency.

As the lime reduced into a paste does but fill up the voids of the materials it is mixed with, there is necessarily a very considerable diminution of bulk

upon the quantities of the respective substances taken separately. The exact amount of this diminution varies of course with the limes or sand employed ; but as a general rule it may be taken as about three-fourths of their collective volumes. To state this in a convenient formula ; if a = the bulk of the lime, b = the bulk of the sand ; then $(a + b) \times 0.75$ = the bulk of the mortar they will produce.

The position in which a mortar of any description is to be used, also modifies the proportions of sand which it is desirable to mix with it. Underground, in the water, and in damp positions, less and should be employed than in the open air, where it is exposed to the changes of the atmosphere.

It is often a matter of importance to know the power of resistance of mortars, but, as they differ within a very large range, it is not easy to state it very precisely. The best experiments, however, show that we may safely calculate for all practical purposes upon a resistance of 14 lbs. avoirdupois per inch superficial, to a force acting in a direction to tear asunder—an effort of longitudinal traction. Of 42 lbs. to a crushing force ; and of $5\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. per inch superficial to a force tending to make the particles slide upon one another. It would not be safe to expose new works to greater efforts than those which could be classed under the above heads.

CHAPTER IX.

ON CONCRETES.

THE term "concrete" is usually applied to a species of rough masonry of small materials consisting of gravel, or broken stone mixed with a lime either previously worked into a mortar or not, as the nature of the lime may require. It is principally used for the purpose of distributing the weight of a large heavy construction over the greatest surface possible ; or for the backing of coursed masonry, in cases where walls are required of great thickness. Properly speaking, it would be better to apply the word "concrete" to this sort of masonry, when executed in the manner usually adopted in our country, by slacking the lime upon and in immediate contact with the gravel. When the lime has been previously worked into a paste, the French word "beton" might be applied, for the sake of distinguishing the two processes.

The use of this beton or concrete, is very ancient, for it is found to have been employed by the Romans ; and Smeaton expressly states that he derived the idea of using it, as a backing for river works, from an inspection of the ruins of Corfe Castle, in Dorsetshire. In the middle ages it was very commonly used, as may be proved by an inspection of the ruins of feudal fortifications. General Pasley was, therefore, mistaken in awarding the merit of the introduction of this system to Sir Robert Smirke.

Of course the quality of a concrete must depend upon the nature of the materials to be employed.

The situations in which it is to be used are mostly those in which there is a great amount of humidity, and in which from the facts that, firstly, the concrete is in large masses, and secondly, that it is covered up as soon as executed, it is necessary to employ only such materials as are susceptible of a rapid setting and continued progression in their powers of resistance. In the former parts of this treatise we have seen that the limes which unite the above conditions are the hydraulic limes, obtained either from the argillaceous, or the magnesio-argillaceous, carbonates of lime. In their absence, some ingredients of the nature of the puozzolanos, burnt clay, slag, or cinders must be used. But it should always be borne in mind, that all these mixtures are but very imperfect imitations of the natural productions; they should never be used if the hydraulic limes can be obtained, even at an increased price; and, as was before said of the hydraulic limes, those obtained from the calcination of the limestone itself are preferable to those made artificially.

In almost every work upon the art of construction, we meet with descriptions of modes of making concrete. It is, however, very discouraging to observe that, in spite of all that may be said, the majority of architects and engineers treat the subject with such utter indifference that the old imperfect systems are still retained, and the conduct of these works is left almost invariably to some rule-of-thumb workman, who only knows that he has been accustomed to make concrete in a certain manner, without knowing any one of the principles which regulate

the action of the materials he works with. We thus find that the bulk of the concrete made in and near London, where the building art ought to be the most advanced, is made simply by turning over the ground stone lime, a very moderately hydraulic one, by the way, amongst the gravel. It is then put into barrows, and shot down from a stage. Such a mode of proceeding is rapid and economical; but it is eminently unscientific; leading doubtlessly to the waste of material we so often witness, for the practice is to make the concrete about one-third thicker than would be at all necessary if the process of making it were more perfect. Unfortunately in England we do everything in such a desperate hurry, especially since railroads have been constructed, that we cannot afford the time necessary for a perfect execution of the works. Failures are consequently frequent, the waste of materials enormous; and, of course, between the two, the expense is out of all proportion to what it ought to be.

It cannot be too often repeated that the first condition necessary to obtain a good concrete, or beton, is that the lime be brought to the state of a perfect hydrate before being mixed with the *nuclæi* which it is intended to surround. It should, therefore, be reduced to the state of a thick paste, and made into a mortar before it is mingled with the gravel. Instead of being thrown down from a height, and left to arrange itself as it best may, it should be wheeled in on a level, and beaten with a rammer; for we find that, when thrown thus from a height, the materials separate, and the bottom parts of a thick bed of

concrete are without their proper proportion of lime. The advantage of making the lime into a mortar previously is that it fills in a much more perfect manner the intervals of the gravel or stones; and in fact renders the concrete what it is meant to be, an imperfect species of rubble masonry.

For water-works required to set rapidly, an excellent concrete may be made by a mixture of hydraulic limes, puozzolanos, and sand. The proportions found to yield the best results are given by Treussart, as follows, viz.:

30 parts of hydraulic lime, very energetic, measured
in bulk, and before being slacked.

30 „ of trass of Andernach.

30 „ of sand.

20 „ of gravel.

40 „ of broken stone, a hard limestone.

The above proportions diminished one-fifth in volume after manipulation: the mortar was made first, the stones and gravel added thereto. When the puozzolano of Italy is used, the proportions, for the same description of work, become (in bulk, as before)—

33 parts of energetic hydraulic lime, measured
before slacking.

45 „ of puozzolano.

22 „ of sand.

60 „ of broken stone and gravel.

The first of these concretes should be employed immediately it is made; the second requires to be exposed about twelve hours before it is put in place.

When burnt clay or pounded bricks are used, the proportions should be the same as with the trass; but, as we have seen before, the use of this material is not to be recommended in the sea water. If rich limes be used instead of hydraulic, the dose of the natural or artificial puozzolanos must be increased, and that of the stone and gravel diminished.

In positions where sufficient time can be allowed for a concrete or beton to set, if made simply of lime, sand, and gravel, the expense of the puozzolanos should be avoided. A very excellent concrete for either sea or river works is made by a mixture of a mortar made of three parts of fine sand to one of hydraulic lime unslacked, with equal quantities of gravel or broken stone: the proportions of the last may often be augmented to $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 of the mortar without inconvenience. No water should be mixed with the mortar and gravel during their manipulation; the mortar itself, if possible, should be prepared in a pug-mill, and mixed with the gravel by being frequently turned over on a platform. Every precaution should be taken to prevent the different ingredients from being mingled with clay or other earths.

The concrete thus made should be spread in layers from 10 in. to 1 ft. in thickness, and well rammed, until the mortar begins to flush up at the top. A course once commenced should never be allowed to be interrupted until completed throughout the whole of its length. When the work is executed in water, other precautions require to be taken, not

only for the purpose of compressing the concrete, but also to prevent the lime from being washed away. These must of course vary with the circumstances of each particular case; but we must always remember that works of this kind, executed under water, are far inferior to those executed dry.

When works are left to the care of mere workmen, as they too often are with ourselves, a very absurd mode of making concrete is often adopted where there is much water to be contended with. The lime is mixed with the gravel, without being previously slacked, and left to absorb the water necessary for its passing to a hydrate how it may. Such a course is unphilosophical and dangerous to a degree, and cannot too carefully be guarded against. In fact, the object to be attained, of securing a carbonate of lime by the equal and regular action of the hydrate, is thereby rendered impossible. It is much more than probable that many of the particles of lime can in these cases only obtain the water necessary for their solidification by absorption from the others around them. They must begin their action after the others have ceased; and as the process of crystallization in all cases requires a new molecular arrangement, often accompanied by an expansion, there is little reason to doubt but that if the lime be in large quantities, it must disintegrate the mass.

Vicat executed the beton for the bridge of Souillac upon the Dordogne in the following proportions in volume:—

26 parts of hydraulic lime in paste.

39 „ of granitic sand.

66 „ of gravel.

This mixture diminished in volume in the proportion of 1.31 to 1.00. But the diminution in volume differs of course with the limes, or the sands used in the different localities.

Broken limestone appears to add very much to the qualities of concretes, betons, and mortars. Very probably this may be attributed to the affinity between the molecules of the already formed carbonate of lime, and that which is in process of formation; the new crystals may group themselves more easily about bodies whose form is similar to the one they are themselves to assume. Or possibly there may be a tendency in the chemical elements to arrive at a state of equilibrium; and the carbonate of lime may, therefore, be supposed to part with a certain portion of its carbonic acid gas.

Many attempts have been made to produce with concrete a species of artificial blocks, amongst others, by Mr. Ranger. These do not appear to have answered in practice; but we may safely assert that, if the mortars had been properly mixed in the first place, and if the concrete, when in the mould, had been properly rammed, and then allowed to dry very gradually, there is no reason why the attempts to make artificial stone should fail. One great cause of failure always has been, that the blocks are exposed too soon after fabrication. They dry rapidly, unevenly, and consequently crack in every possible

direction, and thus offer great facilities for the action of the frost upon any water they may contain.

The resistance of beton or concrete should never be regarded as being superior to those already given for limes, if the superstructure be commenced upon them immediately. In both cases the resistances are found to increase with comparative rapidity during the first six or seven months. It would be advisable, therefore, to leave concretes undisturbed during that space of time if it were possible.

CHAPTER X.

ON CEMENTS.

A PECULIAR class of the argillaceous limestones yields upon calcination a species of lime capable of setting under water with very great rapidity, of acquiring a great degree of hardness within a very short space of time, and of being employed without the admixture of any foreign substance. The name of "cements" has been somewhat absurdly conferred in an especial manner upon this class, although, properly speaking, the word is generic, and should include all substances capable of cementing together small materials.

The first discoverer of this kind of cement was Mr. Parker of London, who in the year 1796 took out a patent for the manufacture of what he called Roman cement, from the septaria nodules of the

London clay formation, found in the Island of Sheppy. His process consisted in calcining the stone, previously broken into small fragments, to a point equal to the commencement of vitrification, and then reducing it to powder by some mechanical operation. Parker appears to have thought that a very high degree of heat was necessary to the success of the operation; but we shall have occasion to observe hereafter that the point of calcination has not the same influence on these cements which it has upon the ordinary limes.

Subsequently Mr. Frost discovered that the septaria of Harwich, on the coast of Essex, produced a cement of the same nature. Mr. Atkinson introduced another made from the nodules of the argillaceous limestones of the secondary formations of Yorkshire. On the coast of France a similar material was found in 1802, at Boulogne. M. Lacordaire discovered it also at Pouilly, in the ancient province of Burgundy; MM. Lamé and Clapeyron found it in Russia. It occurs in the Isle of Wight, in the Bay of Weymouth, and doubtlessly is to be met with in all the marl beds intercalated between the principal stages of the limestone formations, and very frequently in the tertiary clays, in the form of detached nodules, of a dark-coloured argillaceous limestone traversed by veins filled with calcareous spar. The colour is sometimes blue, especially when the nodules are obtained from the lias; sometimes brown, or a deep red, in the tertiary formations, owing to the presence of the oxide of iron in very considerable quantities.

The mineralogical composition of the stones from which the cement is made differs very much; but the characteristic type may be said to consist of above 30 and below 60 per cent. of clay and other extraneous matter in combination with the carbonate of lime. The Sheppy stone usually contains 55 parts of lime, 38 of clay, and 7 of iron; the Yorkshire stone contains 34 parts of clay, 62 of carbonate of lime, and 4 per cent. of iron; the Harwich stone contains 47 parts of clay, 49 of carbonate of lime, and 3 of oxide of iron. But the most careful analyses made by Berthier are as follows. The stones experimented upon were—column 1, the Sheppy stone; column 2, the septaria of the coast near Boulogne; column 3, a stone from Matala in Sweden; column 4, a stone from the neighbourhood of Argenteuil, near Paris.

Carbonate of lime	0·690	0·639	0·661	0·651
Magnesia	0·002	0·019
Oxide of iron	0·037	0·075	0·022	0·060
„ manganese	0·012	0·070
Silica	0·180	0·150	0·295	0·140
Alumina	0·066	0·048		0·060
Water	0·013	0·066		0·060
	1·000	0·978	0·978	1·060
Waste or error	0·022	0·022	0·060 deduct.
Total	1·000	1·000	1·000	1·000

The cement stones are burnt in conical kilns with running fires, and, in England at least, with coke or coal. The mode of burning requires a considerable degree of attention, for experience has demonstrated that Parker was mistaken in supposing that a com-

mencement of vitrification was necessary. On the contrary, the practice of manufacturers at the present day is rather to under-burn the cement, with the object of economizing the expense of grinding. This material differs in this respect also from the ordinary limes, that the precise point of calcination does not affect its qualities.

Before being burnt, the stone is of a fine close grain, of a rather pasty appearance; the surfaces of fracture are rather greasy to the touch, and somewhat warmer than the surface of the stone. Examined with the microscope it exhibits many sparkling points, which may be either crystals of carbonate of lime, or of some of the other constituents. It sticks easily to the tongue; it does not strike fire; its dust, when scraped with the point of a knife, is a grayish white for the most part, especially when derived from the blue lias formation. It effervesces with nitrous acid, and gives off nitrous acid gas. During the calcination the stone loses about one-third of its weight, and the colour becomes of a brown tinge, differing with the stones from which the cement is obtained. It becomes soft to the touch, and leaves upon the fingers a very fine dust; it sticks very decidedly to the tongue.

When withdrawn from the kiln in blocks, the cement absorbs water with so much difficulty that General Pasley was almost justified in stating that it could not do so. As he remarks, "it might be preserved in this state for a long time in a dry room; but calcined cement being of no use until it is pulverized, this is always done at the mill of the manu-

facturer, to save the necessity of every purchaser providing himself with an apparatus for grinding it." It is usually put into casks well closed when thus ground, and may in that state be preserved for a very long time, but the contact with the atmosphere rapidly deteriorates its quality. The cement powder absorbs the humidity and the carbonic acid gas from the atmosphere; it then passes gradually into the state of a subcarbonate; but a second burning, carried to a lower degree than that employed for the first calcination, restores its useful properties.

It is to be observed, and the fact is of sufficient importance to warrant repetition, that though all cements and limes tend to reassume a state of carbonization similar to that in which they existed in the stones from whence they were extracted, they only do so to a very imperfect degree. The proverb that lime at a hundred years is but a child, is perfectly true. Cement hardens more rapidly; but we have no instances of its acquiring the strength of the original stone.

M. Petot mentions that, in his experiments upon the calcination of the cement stones, he found that when it had been carried to the point of driving off all the carbonic acid gas, the powder it gave was perfectly inert. This should be borne in mind in making any new experiments on this class of limestones; and at any rate it constitutes a very remarkable difference between it and those which produce the common lime. The same distinguished engineer also found that cement *mortar* was capable of being revived after the lapse of a considerable time. We

may remark, in passing, that his researches form the best text-book upon the subject of the calcination both of limes and cements.

There does not appear to be any definite rule in the London trade respecting the size of the casks, or the nature of the means by which the cement is transported. This is of little importance as long as it is intended to use it in the immediate neighbourhood of the source of supply. When, however, the cement has to be transported to any great distance, it should never be packed in barrels of more than 6 cwt. each, and with the greatest precautions to prevent the contact of the atmosphere in any manner whatever.

The specific gravity of the stone is about 2·16; that of the calcined stone in block is about 1·58; that of the powder, very loosely packed, is about 0·85 to 1·00. The best cement is, however, that which is the lightest, and it should be ground very fine. The size of the sieve required to be used by the French engineers is No. 2 of their wire gauge, and 185 meshes to the square of 4 inches of a side; which seems a very reasonable dimension.

The use of these natural cements requires a great degree of skill and attention on the part of the workman. If it be not brought to a proper consistence; if too much or too little water be used; if it be not immediately employed as soon as made; if it solidifies unequally, it cracks, and adheres badly to the materials. The care requisite for its successful application constitutes, in fact, the great objection to the use of the cement. It is always dangerous to be

obliged to rely on the skill or integrity of workmen who either do not understand the necessity of taking pains with their work, or who, from being paid by the piece, have an interest in slurring it over.

A small quantity of water only is necessary to work up the cements to their greatest point of resistance, which General Treussart found to be the most successfully attained when the water was employed in the proportion of one-third of the cement in volume. It is necessary to beat up the cement very frequently; indeed, the more it is turned over before the setting commences, the harder it becomes. No more should be prepared than can be immediately employed, for without this precaution it will set in a very short time.

The time of setting varies with the nature of the water used, and the quantity of sand present. With sea-water the time is longer than with fresh, and the sand retards the process very considerably. When the cement is new, however, the time of setting, if it be used pure, should never exceed half an hour, a quarter of an hour being the normal interval. It often happens, however, that the best cement sets in a space of time not exceeding five or six minutes. Under water the interval becomes one hour at most. When mixed with sand in proportions varying from $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, $1\frac{1}{2}$, and 2, to 1 of cement, the time of setting becomes from 1 h. 2 min. to 1 h. 18 min. in the air; under water the time becomes proportionally longer. It may even, under sea-water, and if the mixture be also made therewith, extend, for the mixtures with large proportions of sand, to 24 hours.

Pure cement has much greater powers of resistance than when it is mixed with sand in any proportion whatever—in this again differing from the limes. The resistance to rupture after about 20 days' exposure to the air, is about 54 lbs. per inch square when the cement is used pure; if the sand be in the proportion of $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 of cement, the same resistance falls to 37 lbs.; if it be in equal proportions, it falls to 27 lbs. Doubtlessly these resistances are less than we often meet with, but it is not safe in practice to count upon a greater strength than they indicate. Rondelet's rule, that the resistance to crushing is three times that offered to traction, does not seem to be quite correct in this case, for it would make the resistance of pure cement only equal to 162 lbs. per inch superficial; but, again, it would not be safe to take a higher degree of strength as the basis of any series of calculations for practical purposes. Moreover, the permanent load in any large works should never be more than one-sixth of that required to produce rupture; and, if small materials be employed, the resistance should be calculated at only one-fifteenth of that indicated by theoretical conclusions of the above nature.

Cement adheres very strongly to iron, to granite, and to bricks, in a proportion following an inverse direction to the manner in which they have been just named. When re-burnt, after having lost its strength by exposure to the air, the resistance is not more than one-fourth of that of the fresh cement from the stone.

The resistance to an effort tending to make stones

slide upon their beds when joined by pure cement, may be considered equal to 9 lbs. per square inch upon the average ; but it often arrives at 18 lbs. per inch.

From these considerations it would appear that the best mode of using the natural cements is to employ them without sand in all works under water, or where a great crushing weight is to be brought upon them at once. For foundations in damp situations, where rapidity of execution is desired, they may be mixed with 2 parts of sand to 3 of cement ; the same proportions are suitable for cornices, or coatings exposed to the weather. 3 parts of sand to 2 of cement make a good mixture for perpendicular faces ; but care must be taken that the cement be used so as not to allow of the formation of fissures, or the frost will destroy it.

Many of the failures of the coatings executed upon brickwork are to be attributed to the neglect of proper precautions against the action of the atmosphere. It is important that the brickwork to be covered be thoroughly dry before the coating is added, or the expansion of the water it contains will blow off the latter. The cheap and disgraceful system of colouring, instead of painting, also leads to many failures in the employment of this very useful class of materials.

In England, owing to the cheapness of the so-called Roman cement, whether specifically distinguished as Atkinson's, the Medina, or merely called Roman, almost all the works executed in water at the present day are executed with it. But there are reasons to make us doubt whether we do not in this

case adopt a system which is at least open to objection. Cement is so convenient, that engineers and architects neglect to study the qualities of lime; and some very unfortunate accidents have arisen from that neglect. The author has seen, in one of the government dockyards, the whole of the backing of a graving dock executed in cement, when there were large works in the immediate vicinity for the manufacture of the blue lias lime—a most shameful waste of the money of the nation. All the profession may recollect a sad accident, which cost the lives of several men, and which arose from building columns in cement, on bases in mortar. The Roman cement is a most admirable material in all cases where great rapidity of setting is required; but it should only be used in such cases, for the good hydraulic limes in time attain a degree of resistance sufficiently great for all practical purposes, and at a much less expense. To use a hard quick-setting material upon a yielding base, is a degree of ignorance totally unaccountable on the part of any professional man of average discernment. In fine, the uses of these cements are many and various; we, in our country, are rather inclined to abuse them.

There are many sorts of artificial cement employed which are obtained either from the over-calcination of the hydraulic limes (all of them possessing the faculty of acquiring a more rapid setting, and a greater degree of hardness when so burnt), such as the Portland cement before mentioned; or from the mixture of burnt clays with the rich limes. In some parts of the continent, where the natural cement stones are

not exist, the latter are much used, and they yield a very tolerable substitute for the articles they replace. They are not exposed to the inconvenience which attends the over-calcined limes, of swelling in setting; but they are far from attaining the hardness of either the one or the other. Their use is principally confined to a mixture with the slow-setting limes when they are employed in damp situations, and in these cases they succeed remarkably well. The cesspools and water tanks throughout the interior of Normandy are lined with a mortar made in this manner, and they resist perfectly. But they are never used if the natural cements can be obtained at a reasonable price.

It is to be observed, that although the Portland cement is exposed to the before-mentioned inconvenience, it has other qualities of a very remarkable nature. It becomes in equal times, after the first setting (which by the way is very irregular), much harder than the Roman cements. It will admit of a much larger quantity of sand for every purpose; and, moreover, it does not appear to absorb the humidity of the atmosphere with the same facility, consequently resisting the action of the frost more successfully, and being less exposed to discoloration by the formation of vegetation.

In some parts of France, especially in the ancient Lorraine, limestone beds are worked which yield a species of cement intermediate between the Roman cements and the eminently hydraulic limes. The best of these occur at Flavigny, and Richard Menil, near Nancy, where they are principally used for

making floors of one piece, and of a smooth uniform surface. The colour of the stone is of a darkish brown, of a great tenacity and very compact; its specific gravity is 2.62. The lime it produces is of a yellowish gray, and it sets very rapidly in water. Mixed with the clean gravel of the Moselle, in the proportions of $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 of cement, the volume of the mixture diminishes one-fourth; it is then spread upon the form prepared to receive it, and well beaten. There must be many beds of such limestone in our own country; and, if they were properly sought for, they might add materially to our facilities for building. We require a careful geological survey of England to ascertain the riches we possess of this nature. A commencement was made by the parliamentary commission for the choice of the building stones for the Houses of Parliament; but it did not extend its inquiries to the other branches of this very important part of practical science.

CHAPTER XI.

ON THE VARIOUS CEMENTS COMPOSED OF NUMEROUS EXTRANEOUS INGREDIENTS.

THERE exists also an infinite number of processes for making cements able to harden under water, and to acquire a great degree of resistance. Their success is of course very various; nor can it well be otherwise, for as all these mixtures depend for their success upon the care and skill observed in their mani-

pulation, they must be exposed to all the accidents which attend the processes of human industry. The following are some of the artificial cements alluded to; but the list might be extended indefinitely without including all the varieties.

They may be separated into two grand divisions, the bituminous and the oleaginous; both of the classes are of constant use in the arts of building; and they furnish materials of very great importance, either for the coating of works for ornamental purposes, or for protecting them against the action of water.

The bituminous cements are used either for the purpose of supplying the absence of large flagging for street paving, or for covering the extrados of arches, in order to prevent the percolation of the water from the upper structure. In many situations they are very successful, when employed for street paving; but, generally speaking, we in England have no occasion for such substitutes for stone. Such is not the case in France, however; and it might be economical to use these cements in some of our own inland towns, where the land carriage renders the stone flagging very expensive. For covering arches, these cements are, moreover, very much to be recommended. In all new masonry, with whatever care executed, there are always movements which fissure the coatings executed in limes or natural cements. These again are subject to unequal shrinkage and contractions, which produce crevices; and, from these united causes, it is very rare to find that such coatings are impermeable. The bituminous

cements are more elastic ; it often happens that small crevices solder themselves, so to speak ; and, if any serious repairs are required to be done, it is much easier to execute them than it is when the works are executed with limes.

The best bituminous cements are obtained from the natural asphalt, which is met with in large quantities on the shores of the Dead Sea ; in Albania ; in Trinidad ; at Lobsann and Bekelbronn, in the department of the " Bas Rhin ;" in the department of the Puy de Dôme ; near Seyssel, in the department of the " Ain," at Gaugeac, in that of the Landes ; and would, in all probability, be found near Castleton, in Derbyshire, if carefully sought for.

There are two sorts used in commerce, the pure and the impure. The first does not contain extraneous matter in any great degree ; the second contains a variable proportion of carbonate of lime, and is, therefore, better adapted to such works as are exposed to the effects of the sun. The purer asphalt melts in such positions, but it is better for subterranean works.

The best bitumen, or asphalt, for the words are very illogically confounded in commerce, is free from water. Its specific gravity is 1·10 to 1·15 at the ordinary temperature ; it is solid, but highly ductile, for it draws easily into threads ; its fracture is black, slightly brilliant. Put into warm water, it should float upon the surface, and in that operation it should not deposit any sand. It dissolves completely in the oil of petroleum and the essence of turpentine ; and the dissolution, which should be of

a bistre or dark-brown colour, after being filtered, should not be found to have contained more than seven per cent. of earthy matters. In commerce much fraud takes place by mixing coal tar, and pitch; but these materials, though very valuable by themselves, destroy the superior qualities of the mineral asphalts. It is also highly important to secure the purity of the asphalt from sulphur, or the sulphates of iron. Even so small a proportion as 0.5 (or $\frac{1}{2}$) per cent. would materially diminish its value.

When the asphalt is to be used, the pure, solid, bitumen is thrown into a quantity of mineral pitch, in a state of ebullition; for if it were put into the cauldron alone, it would calcine without melting. If any sand or earthy impurities be present, they should be removed at this stage of the process. The calcareous matters are mixed with the melting bitumen in proportions varying with its nature; and the mixture is applied by means of large spatules, or trowels. Colonel Emy found the following proportions to be the best for the asphalt of Gaugeac, and they may be taken with tolerable safety, as being the most suitable for all the members of this class of cements, when used as a coating for arches.

2 $\frac{1}{8}$ pints (wine measure) of pure mineral pitch.

11 lbs. avoirdupois of Gaugeac bitumen.

17 pints of powdered stone dust, wood ashes, or minion.

It is advisable to lay this cement upon a bed of concrete or mortar; and as much as possible in slabs of 2 ft. 6 in. to 3 ft. in width. It is evenly spread

and compressed by a trowel, and well rubbed and reduced to a uniform close surface. When all the bubbles have been expelled, a fine sand is sprinkled over the surface, and worked in with the trowel, observing never to fill the crevices formed by the air-bubbles with sand, but only with asphalt.

The thickness necessary for coating any arches is not more than from three-fifths to half an inch; the quantity of the cement thus employed to cover a yard square is about $4\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

For street paving it is absolutely necessary to employ a bed of concrete of hydraulic lime and gravel; the upper surface being rendered smooth by a coating of hydraulic mortar. The thickness should be increased to three-fifths of an inch; and it is advisable to add a small quantity of pure quick lime to the bitumen in ebullition, to prevent the asphalt from becoming soft under the influence of the sun's heat. The surface upon which the asphalt is to be employed should be perfectly dry; and it should be applied as hot as possible. All the natural asphalts are not of the same quality in so far as their elasticity is concerned. If, therefore, any of them are found to be too brittle, that defect should be remedied by mixing a quantity of the mineral pitch, or petroleum; but on no account by the mixture of coal tar, or vegetable pitch.

The coal tars, or vegetable pitch, although they be not so desirable as the natural bitumens for building purposes, may in many cases become very valuable substitutes for them. They are not so supple, the stone powder to be mingled with them

requires to be prepared with greater care; and it would appear that they are not so durable as the natural productions of a corresponding class. But they make very good coatings for vaults, or for walls exposed to the dampness of the earth, and many situations occur in which their use must be more economical than that of the materials they are to replace. For foot pavings, however, they do not answer at all.

The mode of using them is to mix powdered calcareous stone, in variable proportions, with the pitch or tar in a state of ebullition. Care must be taken that the stone be thoroughly dry; for if it were wet, it would render the cement porous, from the effect of the vapour trying to escape. The burning, or degree of heat, must also be so regulated that the stone be not converted into quick lime, which takes place with comparative facility owing to its highly comminuted state. The proportions of powder are from 6 to 7 of the pitch in volume, but these require to be ascertained by direct experiment in every distinct case. All the other details of the use of these cements are precisely the same as in the case of the natural asphalts, excepting that it is advisable to use them in greater thicknesses.

The cements used for mosaic works are sometimes of the bituminous character. As used on the continent they are of three sorts. The first, which serves to set the large tesserae in forming floors, is composed of pitch mixed with a black earth; the second, which serves to set stones of middling dimensions, is made of the calcareous stone of Tivoli,

and of oil ; it is properly an oleaginous cement ; the third, which is used for the more delicate mosaics of pieces of glass, is made of lime, pounded bricks, gum andragan, and the white of eggs. The French plumbers unite the glazed pottery tubes they employ for the distribution of water, with a hot cement made of resin, wax, and lime ; or with a cold cement composed of quick lime, cheese, milk, and the white of eggs. The list of these mixtures is, as we observed before, interminable ; their use is also not of sufficient importance to require a detailed notice.

The oleaginous cements were formerly very much used in London under the name of mastic, for the purpose of the ornamental decorations of the Quadrant, and of King William Street in the City. They produce a very fine, close-grained, even surface, and if painted in the beginning, and repainted every three or four years, they retain their beauty for a very long period. Their use has, however, very much diminished of late, owing to the expense, and the difficulty of the manipulation. Indeed, there are no reasons which should induce us to prefer these materials to the hydraulic cements obtained from the septaria, in face of the great difference in their prices.

The best mastics used are known in commerce under the names of Hamelin's mastic, in England ; and the mastic de Dhil, in France. The composition of both is kept secret ; but the main principle of their fabrication consists in the mixture of pounded brick-dust or well-burnt clay, with litharge,

the red protoxide of lead, and with perhaps some extraneous matters. As the proprietors of these processes object to their being rendered public, we content ourselves with calling attention to them, and observing, that they are the best of this class of artificial cements. Many substitutes have been invented for them, which have been more or less successful; the following being amongst the most remarkable.

A litharge mastic is made by mingling 93 parts of burnt clay, pulverized, with 7 parts of litharge ground to a very fine powder. It is mixed up for use with a sufficient quantity of very pure linseed oil to reduce it to the consistence of plaster in a similar state; it is applied like plaster, after the surface has been previously wetted with a sponge filled with oil. This mastic was invented by the Baron Thénard, and it has answered tolerably well.

At La Rochelle, the officers of the engineers used in 1826 a mastic which very closely resembled the mastic de Dhil. It was composed of

14 parts in volume of siliceous sand.

14 parts of pulverized calcareous stone.

$\frac{1}{14}$ in weight of litharge (of the united weights of the sand and stone).

$\frac{1}{7}$ of the total weight of linseed oil.

These powders were previously well dried in an oven, for it was found that the affinity of the mixture for the oil depended upon the state of desiccation of the matters, and upon the commencement of a calcination which appeared to be produced. The mas-

tic thus produced was mixed with oil in the usual manner, and the surfaces upon which it was applied were previously soaked with oil.

In Paris the military engineers sometimes use a mastic of nearly a similar composition, which is made of 6 parts in weight of cement, 1 of white lead, 1 of litharge, 3 of linseed oil, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a richer oil, perhaps an animal oil. At times the cement made from burnt clay is used, at others the natural cement; it has been found also that in some positions the white lead might be advantageously replaced by a similar quantity of puozzolano.

Vauban recommended a kind of mastic which appears to have answered very well for the lining of cisterns and such works. He took 5 or 6 parts in volume of rich lime, which had been slacked in linseed oil, and he mixed these with 2 parts of good cement passed through a very fine sieve. The mixture was beaten up for about half a day; it was laid aside for a night, and beaten up again during half an hour on the next day. It was then laid on the work to be covered in coats of from $\frac{1}{8}$ th to $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch at a time, the joints being first well raked out and cleaned. After three or four days, a second, and subsequently a third and a fourth coat were added, the lower one being well scored to form a key to the last one to be applied. This is the simplest, and experience has shown it to be one of the best methods of making mastic; but we may repeat that such compositions are but elaborate modes of supplying the places of what exist already in the more convenient form of the natural Roman cements.

CHAPTER XII.

ON PLASTERING.

THE modes of "rendering" the insides of dwellings vary in different countries with the materials most commonly found. Wherever the sulphate of lime occurs in large quantities, it is the material exclusively employed; when it becomes too dear, a combination of lime with sundry other materials is substituted for it; or cement, either natural or artificial, is used.

The sulphate of lime is met with in large formations known under the commercial name of gypsum. It is to be found, in England, at Alston, in Cumberland; at Shotover Hill, in Oxfordshire; a variety of the fibrous gypsum occurs in Derbyshire, and in Cheshire. In the neighbourhood of Paris, it is met with at Montmartre, Belleville, Charonne, Ménilmontant, le Mont Valérien, Triel, Meulan, and Vaux. It is worked in the departments of the Soane and Loire, of the Rhône, of the Marne, the Seine and Oise, and of the Landes; in the Alps and the Lower Pyrénées; it is also found near Marseilles, Grenoble, Mont Blanc, and Mont Cenis; in Tuscany, Savoy, Spain, and Switzerland. An anhydrous variety is worked at Bergamo, and Milan, which comes from the neighbourhood of Vulpino. In Germany there are also beds of it largely worked for the purpose of dressing the artificial meadows; and large quantities are extracted also for the same purpose in the British colonies of North America, which are ex-

ported principally to the United States. It may be said geologically to occur either in contemporary strata of great thickness (as near Paris) in the tertiary formations; or in the iridescent marls (*les marnes irisées*) of La Meuse, or the Aveyron; or in masses of a subsequent date in the different secondary rocks. These last masses are constantly in contact with the igneous rocks, and they are very frequently associated with the dolomites, rock-salt, bitumen, and sulphur in a distinct form.

The sulphate of lime is insipid, or of a slightly bitter flavour; it is colourless and indecomposable by heat. It is soluble in water, whether hot or cold, 1000 parts of water at any temperature between 10° and 100° of the centigrade scale dissolving 3 parts of plaster. Its specific gravity is 2·31; it contains in its natural state 20·9 per cent. of water of crystallization, which is given off at a temperature less than 200° of the centigrade scale (392° Fahrenheit).

The gypsum from the best quarries is nearly as hard as the calcareous stones; after its water of crystallization is driven off, it becomes pulverulent and like flour. If fresh water be presented to it in this state, it combines with the normal quantity of water, and reassumes the form of a hydrate, which it had lost by the burning, crystallizing around the materials presented to it, and recovering its original density and strength to a very great degree. It is this property which has led to its use in buildings: when the plaster is burnt it is dishydrated; when gauged, or worked up, the precise quantity of water it had lost is restored to it.

The plaster is "got" from the quarries (either underground or open) by picks and wedges; sometimes with gunpowder. Nearly all the quarries round Paris are underground; at Montmartre, nearly the whole hill is thus dug out. The stone is broken up into small blocks, about the size necessary for rubble masonry, before being carried to the kilns.

The burning of the plaster stone at Paris, and throughout the continent, is managed in a very slovenly way. The kilns consist simply of three sides of a square enclosed by brick walls, covered with a rough tiled roof, in which spaces are left to allow the escape of the steam. Under this sort of shed (for that is a more correct name than that of a kiln), the plaster is arranged by constructing, firstly, a series of vaults of the largest stones, filling in the haunches as the arches are carried up. Upon these the remaining stones are piled, paying attention only to the fact that the larger ones should be near the fireplace formed by the vaults. These are then filled with faggots, or other firewood, which is set fire to. The flames rise through the spaces left in the stones; they ascend gradually through the mass, and distribute, as equally as may be, the heat throughout the mass.

The time of burning necessarily depends upon the quantity operated upon at once; but care must be taken that it be not continued so long as to over-cal-cine the particles in immediate contact with the fire. As was before said, a degree of heat equal to 200° of the centigrade scale is sufficient to drive off the water; above that the sulphate of lime appears to

lose its power of combining the water for the purpose of reassuming the form of a hydrous sulphate. The system adopted abroad, as might naturally be expected, leads to a vast waste of the raw material, owing to the very slovenly way in which it is executed. As much as one-fifth is wasted in many of the kilns.

Some of the London manufacturers adopt a mode of preparing the plaster, which obviates not only this inconvenience, but also that attending the use of coal, which discolours the plaster very much. It consists of a kiln so arranged that the fuel is never in immediate contact with the stone ; but the chimney from the fire-place passes round and round the kiln, and communicates its heat during the whole of its passage, rendering the interior in fact an oven. The plaster in this case is burnt continuously.

A system has also been proposed lately in France which appears theoretically superior to this process. It is founded on the fact that steam at a very great degree of heat becomes a gas, very greedy of water, and able to absorb it from any body it may be put into contact with. A jet of steam, heated above 400° Fahrenheit, is then projected upon the plaster stone, broken very small comparatively ; it takes up immediately all the water which is present, and leaves the plaster in the state of a pure anhydrous sulphate of lime, without waste or discoloration. The difficulty of this process lies in making the chamber in which it is carried on, and all the machinery, sufficiently strong to resist the action of so very elastic a gas as steam at that temperature. But the problem has been solved for the drying of gunpowder by a

similar use of very high-pressure steam; there can, then, be no insuperable difficulty in the case of the plaster.

The stone which yields the best description of plaster, without any exception, is that found near Paris. Generally speaking, its superior hardness, and rapidity of setting, is attributed to the presence of a small quantity of carbonate of lime, which is supposed to be converted into a pure lime by calcination. But, as Guy Lussac observed, this cannot be the real explanation, for the degree of calcination of the plaster is never sufficiently high to affect the carbonate. The degree of hardness of the plaster must then depend entirely upon that of the stone from whence it is obtained; and we generally find, in fact, that such is the case—the hardest stones produce the hardest plaster.

A simple manner of ascertaining the quality of a plaster stone is to put into a vase a certain quantity of it in a state of powder, and to pour thereon one half in volume of nitric acid, diluted in three times its own weight of water. This is allowed to repose, and after several hours, the liquid is to be decanted very gently. The deposit is to be washed with pure water several times, being allowed to rest between each of the operations. As soon as the water is pure and tasteless, the mixture or deposit is to be taken out, spread upon a sheet of paper, and dried. Weighed in this state, the loss it has sustained represents the quantity of carbonate of lime present in the stone submitted to the analysis.

After the calcination, the plaster is reduced to

powder, either by hand or in a mill; in this state it absorbs the humidity of the atmosphere with great avidity, and requires to be covered up very carefully, to secure it from contact therewith, directly it is crushed. There is also, from this reason, a very great objection to transporting the plaster in its manufactured state for any great distance.

When mixed with water, a species of confused crystallization takes place, and the plaster in combining with it gives off a considerable portion of its latent heat. An augmentation of volume takes place, which is supposed to be owing to the efforts of the crystals to arrange themselves symmetrically. Unless great attention be paid to this action of the plaster, it is likely to compromise seriously the solidity of the work. Sometimes it is obviated by mingling with the plaster substances which may allow the movement of the crystals to take place, without affecting the colour of the mass.

Plaster is far from having the tenacity of mortar, which, as it is well known, increases with time. Rondelet found that if two bricks were joined together with this material, they united with one-third more force in the commencement than if they had been joined with lime; but that they subsequently lost their force of adherence. A very useful application of plaster was made by Smeaton in the construction of the Eddystone Lighthouse, where he covered the fresh cement joints with it, to give them the time necessary to harden.

In England, where plaster is both bad and expen-

sive, its use is confined to the more expensive description of decoration. In France, however, it is largely used for the construction of walls, both internal and external, as well as for rendering them afterwards. If proper precautions be taken to cover the surfaces exposed to the weather, and if it be painted as soon as dry, the plaster is eminently useful in such positions; and replaces very advantageously the natural cements for all common purposes. But it is utterly incapable of resisting the action of water.

As the proprietors of the French quarries of gypsum are now making vigorous efforts to introduce that material, and as from its superior qualities it will eventually force itself into general use, if burnt near the place of consumption, some instructions are added as to the manner of employing it which is generally adopted in Paris and the environs.

The coarser kinds of plaster are used for the ordinary works, such as the rendering of walls and partitions; the finer qualities are reserved for the ceilings, cornices, and other decorative works. A difference is to be observed in the quantity of water to be mixed, according to the position and nature of the work to be executed. Thus, for walls, the plaster must be gauged stiff for the first coats, and more fluid for the setting coat. For cornices worked out in the solid, the core is made of stiffly-gauged plaster, which is floated with finer material, and lastly finished off with plaster laid on by hand about the consistence of cream. Practice only

can ascertain the precise degree of stiffness to be given, especially as every burning yields a different quality.

When walls are to be rendered in plaster, they require to be first jointed, and then wetted with a broom. The surface is then covered with a coat of thinly-gauged stuff laid on with a broom, or at least worked with the trowel in such a manner as to leave sufficient hold for the next coat. This is gauged stiff, and is laid on with the trowel; it is floated with a rule, but the face is finished with a hand trowel. Owing to this, and to the fact that the plaster sets too rapidly to allow of great pains being taken with the floating, the surfaces are never so even, nor are the angles so square and true as with our common system. But this mathematical nicety is not really of importance in ordinary works, whilst the rapidity with which the plaster dries constitutes a real and very important recommendation in its favour.

The partitions in Paris are generally made solid, so as to prevent sound from passing through them. They are executed with quarters of oak or of fir, according to the nature of the building. Upon the quarters, laths are nailed every 4 in. apart, and the interior is filled in with plaster rubble. This is made even and flush with the laths, and the whole is then rendered like an ordinary wall.

The ceilings are sometimes executed with close laths, but the usual plan is to nail them about 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. from centre to centre. A sort of flat centering is put under them, and what are called "augets" are then formed between in plaster, which

finish about flush with the under side of the laths, and return up the joists to nearly their total height, forming a sort of channel, which the workmen often finish by drawing a bottle along the sides. The thickness in this case should be about 1 inch; the ceiling itself is added underneath; the floors are either of wood, or of tiles upon a bed of plaster formed above the joists. The better description of such floors and ceilings are often made, however, with laths spaced 4" from centre to centre; the space between ceiling and floor is then filled up with light plaster rubble, and the upper and under surfaces are rendered to receive the ceiling and the tiles. Ceilings executed in either of these two last-named manners, cost $1\frac{1}{2}$ time those executed either with laths or flat "augets."

In countries like our own, and in Belgium and the French Flanders, where the price of plaster is very high, it is replaced by the use of a mixture of lime and sand, to which cows' or calves' hair is added. This mixture is then applied upon close lathing for ceilings and partitions, and in the usual manner upon walls.

The lime generally used for this purpose is the chalk lime, which is slacked with a great deal of water, and runs from an upper basin in the state of a cream into a lower one, where the excess of water is allowed to evaporate. A grating should be placed at the entry of the passage between the two basins, to keep back the core, or any unslacked particles the upper one might contain. The lime run in this manner is made into a mortar with a very fine sand;

and the hair is then added. For the first coats coarse hair will be most desirable ; for the finishing coats it should be finer.

In well-finished works two coats are given, which are distinguished by the names of the "rendering," and the "floating." A third coat is then added called the setting coat, which is made of the pure lime as it is run from the basin. Ceilings are afterwards covered with a very light coat of plaster, gauged thin, and laid on with a trowel. Such plastering is very cheap ; and if proper attention be paid to its execution so as to avoid blisters from the use of unslacked lime ; to fill the cracks which frequently take place in the thicker coats, from the unequal contraction of the lime in setting ; and to allow a proper interval for the whole plastering to dry before the painting, or subsequent decoration to be added, is applied ; the lime and hair may be safely admitted as a substitute for the natural plaster. The superior rapidity with which the latter dries, the much superior manner in which it takes colour, and the degree of hardness it attains, will, however, secure it the preference, unless very weighty considerations of economy oppose its employment.

One great use of the sulphate of lime dehydrized, or of the common plaster, is for the purpose of top-dressing upon the lucerne, trefoil, sainfoin, and other artificial grasses. This method of using it prevails to a very great extent throughout France and the United States ; but it is comparatively unknown in England. Some experiments appear to have been already made, but with the English plaster stone in

its unburnt state. They did not succeed ; it may be owing to the difference of the two stones, or because, as the raw gypsum was used, in so very wet a climate as ours, its useful action was too rapidly exhausted. It would also appear that the gypsum was used as a manure (for which purpose it is comparatively valueless) instead of being simply employed as a top-dressing. In the north-west of France the farmers use the plaster in equal quantities with the seed sown, or 4 cwt. per acre. It is sprinkled gently over the grass crops, and the best time for employing it is immediately before a shower of rain. This dressing requires to be renewed every year, and consequently is rather expensive ; but the results it produces are startling, so great is the difference in the weight of the grass crops. The objection on the score of expense ought now to be obviated ; for with the facilities offered by the Paris and Dieppe Companies, the plaster stone could be obtained in England at a sufficiently low rate to enable manufacturers to supply the plaster itself at a price which would bring it within the reach of farmers.

The London manufacturers appear to have been running a race lately in bringing out new combinations of plaster, the result of which only appears to be, that they obtain artificially and expensively what would be nearly as well obtained by the use of the French plaster stone. Amongst the best of these inventions is without exception the Keene's cement, which is capable of being worked to a very hard beautiful surface, so hard, indeed, as to be well adapted for floors or skirtings. It is obtained by

soaking the plaster in alum water after a first calcination ; it is then put a second time into the kiln, reburnt, and ground. The Keene's cement is a very beautiful plaster. Why the name of cement should be given is, however, a mystery, unless we explain it on the ground that the manufacturers wish to keep up their charter of applying names without rhyme or reason.

The Parian cement is also composed of a plaster base, the gypsum being mixed with borax (the borate of soda) in powder, and the mixture is calcined, and is subsequently ground. The result is a very beautiful material ; but it is liable to the same objection as the Keene's cement, namely, the expense.

There are numerous other mixtures of the same nature in which the plaster is mixed with one or more of the salts. They can hardly be yet considered as inventions which have fallen into the domain of publicity ; any detailed description might, therefore, be considered as an interference with the rights of the proprietors.

CHAPTER XIII.

ON STUCCOS.

THE name of "stucco" is given to a species of plastering which is subsequently worked to resemble marble. It is generally made of lime mixed with calcareous powder, chalk, plaster, and different other substances

in such a manner as to obtain in a short time a solid surface, which may be coloured, painted, and polished with sufficient perfection to allow of its being used instead of the more precious marbles. It is employed in architecture to cover columns, pilasters, walls, plinths; to form mouldings, bas-reliefs, and other analogous objects of decoration.

Stucco is also sometimes used to protect exterior surfaces exposed to the air or to humidity; but in this case such materials only should be used as are capable of resisting the action of water. As the materials for making stuccos do not exist everywhere in the same manner, their composition must differ in every locality. The principal object is to obtain a material which is capable of acquiring a great degree of hardness, and which is able to receive a polish. To obtain these results, one of the most important conditions is, that the different ingredients be reduced to the greatest possible degree of fineness, and that they possess the power of rapidly solidifying.

There are two species of stuccos, those made of limes, and those made of plaster. Of the former it is evident that the best must be those which are classed under the name of cements; but their disagreeable colour prevents their being used, at least for ornamental decoration. They serve, however, to form the foundations on which the more elegant preparations are applied, whenever any danger is to be feared from humidity.

The Italians usually execute their stuccos in three coats; the first is a very coarse one, and forms merely what we would call the "rendering." The

materials of the second are much finer, and they contain a larger proportion of lime; the surface being thus brought up to a very even, close grain. The last coat of stucco is made of rich lime which has been slacked, and run through a very fine sieve, and is usually allowed to stand from four to five months before being used, in order that every particle of it may be reduced to a hydrate. If the lime cannot be kept for so great a length of time, the slacking may be perfected by beating it up very frequently. When great perfection is required, it is usual to mingle pounded white Carrara marble, or even gypsum or alabaster; but the latter are only used in situations which are entirely protected from the action of the atmosphere. The powdered marble and the lime in the form of a very damp paste are mixed, in equal quantities, until the whole is perfectly homogeneous. Vitruvius even recommends that the trituration with a trowel be continued, so long as any portion of the mixture adheres to the iron, before it be applied. This preparation is then laid very carefully upon the even surface of the second coat of plaster, and well worked with the trowel until the face becomes perfectly polished. It forms a very good imitation of a marble of an uniform colour.

The different colours are obtained by mixing with the lime such metallic oxides as the case may require; thus, to obtain blues, two measures of marble powder, one of lime, and a half measure of the oxide, or even the carbonate of copper, are mixed together.

To obtain greens, a quantity of the green enamel

is used with a larger proportion of marble powder ; but the mixture is worked up with lime water. Pearl grays are made by mingling ashes with the marble. Browns, by mingling ashes and cement in proportions varying with the tones desired to be obtained. Blacks are made by using forge ashes containing numerous particles of iron. Calcined ochres are used to make the reds, as is also litharge, or the red oxide of lead ; the yellow oxide of lead serves to give that colour. The mixtures thus obtained are subsequently laid on in patches ; and the excellence of the work consists in the taste with which they are employed to imitate the effects of the natural marbles, so as to give either the blending or the distinct opposition of colours to be met with therein.

When plaster is used instead of lime, it is gauged with lukewarm water in which size has been dissolved, or fish glue, or gum arabic, in order to fill up the pores, to give it more consistence, and to render it susceptible of receiving a better polish. This kind of stucco is the one more especially employed when it is required to produce details of great delicacy and perfection. If it be required to produce divers tints with this material, the colours should be dissolved in the size water before it is used for gauging the plaster.

The polishing should never be commenced until the whole of the stucco is perfectly dry. To hasten the desiccation a linen may be applied frequently to the face to absorb the moisture which may have worked through ; but no friction should be allowed until the whole is perfectly dry. The surface is then

rubbed with a very fine-grained grit stone, washing and cleaning it with a sponge in the same manner as a real marble; it is then rubbed with a linen containing moistened tripoli powder and chalk; and the whole is finished by a rubber of felt imbibed with oil and very fine tripoli powder, which is quite at the end changed for a rubber with nothing but oil. The thickness of the coat of stucco varies from between one-sixth to one-eighth of an inch, for internal works.

Scagliola is a process of a similar nature to the one thus executed, with perhaps some slight differences in the manner of setting up and drying the coat of plastering which forms its base. There are a greater number of small pieces, splinters, "scagliole" of marble in the best descriptions of this work, and it is from them that the process derives its name.

MM. Darcet and Thénard applied to the interior of the dome of the Panthéon in Paris, an encaustic for the purpose of rendering the stone fit to receive the paintings executed by M. Gros, which answers remarkably well for the plaster under similar circumstances. The surfaces to be covered were firstly dried by large braziers for the purpose of thoroughly drying the stone, and removing all the air contained in the parts exposed to the heat, so that the stone might be rendered more absorbent, and that the encaustic might penetrate further into it. A mixture of 1 part of yellow wax, and 3 parts of oil, in which $\frac{1}{16}$ th of the whole weight of litharge had been mixed before melting, was then applied at a temperature of 212° Fahr. It was laid on with a brush, in frequent

coats, until in fact the stone was so thoroughly impregnated with it that it could absorb no more. The pictures above-mentioned have resisted very well for above twenty years in a very exposed position.

Should the above mixture be too expensive, one consisting of 1 part of oil containing $\frac{1}{16}$ th of its weight of litharge, and of 2 or 3 parts of resin, may be substituted. This mixture should be allowed to cool, and be remelted before it is applied; the walls being previously well dried, and the encaustic laid on in five or six coats. Plastering which has been thus treated becomes sufficiently hard to resist the nail in a very short time; and it is effectually protected against any changes of the atmosphere. The action of these oleaginous substances is merely to fill the pores of the plaster, and thus to prevent the action of the moisture. They do not enter into any chemical combination.

CHAPTER XIV.

ON THE SALTPETREING OF LIMES, CEMENTS, AND PLASTERS.

A VERY interesting, and at present, unfortunately, a very little understood class of phenomena takes place when the materials we have considered are exposed to certain conditions. We find that in damp positions, in new works, walls are often covered with

a crystalline substance of a white fleecy appearance, and of a slightly acid flavour, which works its way through any ordinary coat of paint; and, as it absorbs the humidity of the atmosphere in efflorescing, it renders the walls damp on the surface, and carries off the paint in large patches. This process is called by workmen saltpetreing, and is in fact the production of saltpetre from the materials employed in the construction of the walls. The very disagreeable effect it produces upon the decorations, either internal or external, renders the research of its cause extremely interesting to the architect or the builder; moreover, its action upon the durability of stone is such, that the study of this singular chemical phenomenon interests the engineer to an equal extent.

Saltpetre is, properly speaking, a nitrate of potassa; but, although it is regarded as the sole cause of the appearances we now examine, it is far from being the only substance produced in the particular instances; for the nitrate of soda and the chloride of potassium are often to be met with in connection with the saltpetre itself.

Very few chemists appear to pay attention to the fact that nearly all limestones contain a certain quantity of soda and potassa; or at least in the analyses we meet with in chemical works no mention is made of their presence. General Treussart was, perhaps, the first to publish any hint upon the subject, when he stated that the artificial cements differed from those obtained from the septaria nodules, inasmuch as the latter contained a small dose of one or the other of those metallic oxides. But his dis-

covery appears to have led no further than to securing a better method of making the articles he sought, and its influence upon the solution of the question before us was quite neglected.

The ancient chemists believed that the production of the saltpetre was to be explained by the combination of the nitrogen present in the walls (arising from a previous combination of the oxygen of the atmosphere with the azote supplied by the decomposition of the animal matters contained in the building materials) with the metallic oxides they might contain. This theory remained unquestioned until M. Longchamp proposed another by which he sought the explanation of the phenomenon of the production of the nitrogen, by supposing that the carbonates of lime and of magnesia, taken in a proper degree of comminution, and properly wetted, could absorb air, condense it, and transform it into nitric acid in the course of time; or rather bring it to that state, after condensation, which would cause it to enter into combination with the lime and magnesia, giving rise to the formation of the nitrates of those two substances, and so much the more readily enable it to combine with the potassium, especially if it were present in the form of a carbonate.

Under all circumstances, the presence of powerful bases, such as the chalk and magnesia, or the potassium, appears to be necessary, and they require to be in a highly comminuted state. Lime in the form of chalk, or a highly porous limestone, is favourable to the action of the nitrogen. Marbles, and the densest class of limestones, nitrify with great diffi-

culty, hardly at all; and the limes made from them enjoy a corresponding immunity from this inconvenience. Thouvenel appears to believe that these bases only nitrify when in the state of carbonates; but the extraordinary facility with which the sulphates of lime give rise to the formation of the saltpetre is not of a nature to persuade us of the universality of the law. And, indeed, there are some cases to be noticed hereafter, in which it would appear that, so far from its being necessary that the lime be a carbonate, the nitrification ceases when it becomes so in an eminent degree, or is at least much retarded.

Whichever theory we adopt to account for the presence of the nitrogen, there appear to be certain conditions which facilitate the production of the saltpetre. Firstly, a degree of humidity, about equal to that of garden earth, is very favourable to it. At 32° of Fahrenheit, the nitrification does not take place; between 60° and 70° it is the most abundant. In Sweden, light is considered rather to retard it, and an exposition towards the north is always sought for; but that does not appear so much to be owing to the absence of strong sunshine, as to the evaporating effects of the north winds, which are eagerly desired in the artificial nitre factories. Light, in fact, would rather appear to be without influence in its action than otherwise. The most favourable conditions for the formation of the nitre, however, are united in cellars, and underground constructions. It is from them that the French chemists, during the war, extracted the saltpetre necessary for their gunpowder

manufactures; especially from the demolition of cellars executed with plaster instead of mortar. The richest of these materials contain sometimes as much as from 5 to 7 per cent. of saltpetre.

The nitrification takes place very freely when sea water and sea sand have been used, so much as to render them totally unfit for works requiring any perfection of execution. Dumas asserts that there is a very considerable quantity of nitre in the sea salt; if so, it may explain the injurious action of the sea water. Brande, it is true, does not mention nitre as being present in the sea salt; but he states that the earthy muriates are so in the proportions of between 5 and 28 per thousand, the sulphates between 6 and $32\frac{1}{2}$ per thousand. The efflorescence upon works executed with sea water is, however, very distinctly and decidedly a nitrate of soda; and, as it occurs in much greater abundance wherever it is used, notwithstanding Brande's silence, we may safely assume, that some portion at least of the nitre is furnished by it.

It seems hardly reasonable, in fact, to attribute the presence of the nitre entirely to the decomposition of the animal matters contained in the building materials. These in many cases are submitted at times to such a degree of heat as would arrest the process of decomposition; but, in the case of bricks, we find the nitrification to take place almost immediately upon their being exposed to the air. It is difficult, also, to explain in this manner the constant formation of new crystals of the nitrate of potassa, which goes on in the caves of Ceylon, and of La

Roche Guyon, in France. In the artificial nitre works, it is true that the nitre is obtained by mixing calcareous earths with decaying animal matter; but the latter requires to be present in such large proportions, that we hesitate before we can receive it as being the only source from whence the materials used in building derive the quantities necessary. We are forced to seek the explanation of the phenomenon in the action of the chemical bases upon the constituent elements of the atmosphere. It is known, says Dumas, that the azote and the oxygen combine together under the form of nitric acid, by the aid of the electric fluid, and under the influence of water. The presence of such energetic bases as lime and magnesia may, perhaps, be equivalent to that of the electricity; especially as the porosity of the materials enables them to act upon smaller quantities at a time.

The practical bearings of this interesting chemical question, upon the professions of the engineer and architect, are as follows:—

Firstly. Sea water, or sea sand, should never be used in making up mortar, or plaster, which is likely to require painting, or any sort of decoration, such as papering, stuccoing, &c. For outside works, the use of sea sand which has been well washed in fresh water, and exposed for at least six months, may be admitted, but it is still likely to cause a nitrification; and as the conditions of temperature internally are more favourable to that action than externally, it is most likely to manifest itself in that direction. There is always a danger attending the use of sea sand; if

it can be replaced, it should therefore be so, even at an increased expense.

For such works as sea walls, lock chambers, quay walls, &c., it is not of so much importance that the nitrification be avoided, provided always that the stones used be of such a nature as to resist the destructive tendency of the process. Many of the oolites are not so able to resist, such as the Portland stone, the Caen, and the Bath stone. They should not then either be used in conjunction with mortar made with either sea sand or sea water; nor should they, in any case, be exposed to the latter. The purer crystalline limestones, and the granites, resist this cause of chemical decomposition much better, and should be employed in such positions in preference. It is, however, to be observed that there are some kinds of oolite, such as the Ranville stone, near Caen, the Roach beds of the Portland, which are as little affected by the sea water as the stones just mentioned.

Secondly. When it is absolutely necessary to use such materials as we know to be exposed to the inconvenience of nitrification, it is advisable to take early precautions with the view of preventing the action of the atmosphere upon the chemical ingredients. We see that in whatever manner the bases absorb the nitrogen, whether from the decomposition of the animal matter, or from the condensation of the gases, that could not take place unless the atmosphere were in contact with the internal structure. If, then, we protect the interior in some manner by a coat of paint, or an encaustic, for

instance, we shall probably stop the action of the nitrification. It is thus, doubtlessly, that we may account for the fact that if the Roman cement be painted as soon as it is dry, it does not assume the action in question; but if it be left for any length of time unpainted, it becomes useless to attempt to execute such work. The atmosphere has entered the pores of the cement; the nitrates will cause any coat of paint to fall off.

Such a precaution can, however, only be successful when the body of the work is not of a nature to furnish its own nitrogen, if such an expression be allowable; or when it is in such positions, and of such dimensions, as not to derive it from any other quarter. If, for instance, a wall be built of bricks made from the alluvial mud of the embouchures of rivers, no precautions can prevent the saltpetre from forming. Engineers or architects, then, who have any decorative works to execute in places where such materials only are used, must detach them from the walls. If the wall be thin and the coat of encaustic penetrate very deeply into the plastering, it may happen that the saltpetreing may take place entirely on the outside; but this is a mere chance, that is to say, it is an action we can neither explain nor control; one, therefore, no prudent man would rely upon. In very thick walls we often find that the saltpetreing does not take place on both sides, only on the weather, or exposed side. Possibly this may be explained by supposing that the limes in the interior have had time to become more perfect carbonates before the air can have found its way through the pores. But if the process

once begin with such thick walls it never leaves off, at least within any reasonable time.

The workmen in London have a practice which may some day serve as a guide to more scientific examinations upon the subject. It consists, whenever they use Portland stone in elevation, in covering it with a wash made of pounded stone-dust and sand, which is rubbed off upon cleaning down the work. This very simple precaution serves temporarily to protect the stone against the formation of the saltpetre. But it is to be observed that the precaution alluded to is not effectual to stop the process of the saltpetreing, otherwise than temporarily, although it diminishes its force afterwards. The process is resumed, but in a weaker degree, as soon as the coating is removed. The most reasonable mode of accounting for the action of this wash is by supposing that it affords a protection to the stone, by closing up its pores, during the time it is passing from the state of a subcarbonate to a perfect carbonate of lime, or from a protocarbonate to a percarbonate; for a very distinct change takes place in the chemical nature of limestones of every description upon exposure.

These precautions are unfortunately very doubtful in their results; at every moment we are exposed to see the materials which contain soda and potassa take up the action of saltpetreing. Many noble frescos have perished in this manner; many of the finest buildings have been ruined by the decomposition it superinduces in the stones of which they are built. The study of the mode of its action becomes therefore highly important; but it is to be

feared that it will continue to be treated with the neglect which has hitherto been the lot of the whole science of chemistry applied to the arts of building. It happens, unfortunately, that very few architects or engineers are chemists; few chemists are aware of the nature of the questions it concerns us so deeply to have solved. May the author hope that he has advanced the scientific interests of the profession, by calling attention, in however humble a manner, to the points and questions which appear to him to require explanation?

GEO. R. BURNELL.

LONDON, Nov. 1849.

ARTIFICIAL STONE.

A VERY ingenious improvement has been made in the manufacture of this very useful article by Mr. Frederick Ransome, of Ipswich, who has recently obtained a patent.

The main feature of this invention consists in the use of a solution of flint, as the binding material. For this purpose flint or other silicious matters are dissolved by caustic alkali, under pressure in a steam boiler, by which means a silicated solution is obtained, possessing the physical properties of gum water or glue, being perfectly transparent, and of great tenacity. The solution, when in this state, may be usefully employed in impregnating wood or other similar substances, the subsequent application of a weak acid precipitating the silica in the pores of the wood, &c.; the materials are thus rendered fireproof and indestructible.

In the production of artificial stone, for grinding,

building, or ornamental purposes, the solution is worked up with sand, clay, powdered flint, and other raw materials, varying in fineness and quality according to the kind of stone required. The compound thus produced possesses the plastic properties of glaziers' putty, and in this state it is readily moulded into any required form, receiving the sharpest and most delicate impressions.

When moulded, the stone requires to be dried gradually, and afterwards submitted to a red heat in a stove or kiln, by which operation the free or uncombined silica of the raw materials unites with the excess of alkali which exists in the solution, thereby forming a semi-vitreous compound, and rendering the whole stone perfectly insoluble.

The applications of this invention are very numerous. The following are some of the purposes in which it may very advantageously be adopted:—Grinding stones of all kinds and descriptions can be produced from the cheapest and commonest materials; sand mixed in certain proportions forming the base, and from the perfect regularity of texture which is thus secured, the wear is more uniform than that of stones of a natural produce. Architectural ornaments and decorations of all kinds, columns, capitals, balustrades, mouldings, cornices, chimney pieces, &c., are produced by employing finer descriptions of sands, clays, &c.; floorings, steps, and pavements, of any design, can be made in a similar manner, and any desired colour imparted to them by the employment of various metallic preparations.

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APPENDIX.

- I. Table of Logarithmic Differences.
- II. Table of Logarithms of Numbers, from 1 to 100.
- III. Table of Logarithms of Numbers, from 100 to 10,000.
- IV. Table of Logarithmic Sines, Tangents, Secants, &c.
- V. Table of Useful Factors, extending to several places of Decimals.
- VI. Table of various Useful Numbers, with their Logarithms.
- VII. Table of Diameters, Areas, and Circumferences of Circles, &c.
- VIII. Table of Relations of the Arc, Abscissa, Ordinate and Subnormal, in the Catenary.
- IX. Tables of the Lengths and Vibrations of Pendulums.
- X. Table of Specific Gravities.
- XI. Table of Weight of Materials frequently employed in Construction.
- XII. Principles of Chronometers.
- XIII. Select Mechanical Expedients.
- XIV. Observations on the Effect of Old London Bridge on the Tides, &c.
- XV. Professor Farish on Isometrical Perspective.

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